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Effects of Task Values, Attributions, and Cultural Constructs on Foreign Language Use Anxiety among International Teaching Assistants

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Effects of Task Values, Attributions, and Cultural Constructs on Foreign Language Use Anxiety among International Teaching Assistants

by

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Effects of Task Values, Attributions, and

Cultural Constructs on Foreign Language Use Anxiety

among International Teaching Assistants

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This study examines the relationships between task values, attributions, cultural constructs and foreign language use anxiety using expectancy-value theory, attribution theory, and Triandis' (1995) cultural constructs model (i.e., individualism versus collectivism) as its theoretical bases. This study explores how perceptions and values of foreign language learning affect foreign language use anxiety. Going beyond the perspective that foreign language anxiety is an individual personality characteristic, cultural constructs were used to investigate the influence of culture on foreign language use anxiety.

Three major hypotheses were tested. The first, based on expectancy-value theory, states that the more value attached to foreign language learning, the higher the level of foreign language use anxiety. The second states that individuals who attribute their outcomes externally will have higher levels of anxiety than those who attribute them to internally controllable variables. The third states that those individuals from collectivist societies will have higher levels of foreign language use anxiety than those from individualist societies.

Survey data were collected from 226 international teaching assistants at a large southwestern university. The survey instruments included the English Use Anxiety Scale (adapted from Gardner's French Use Anxiety Scale), Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, a modified version of Eccles and Wigfield's value scale, and the Triandis cultural constructs scale.

The data showed that task values were negatively related to foreign language use anxiety. Thus, the first hypothesis was not supported contrary to theoretical expectations. The data also revealed that as learners perceived the successful acquisition of English to be under their control (i.e., due to their efforts), foreign language use anxiety increased. This finding ran counter to theoretical expectations and failed to support the hypothesis. Finally, no significant relationship between cultural orientation and foreign language use anxiety was obtained. Nevertheless, the data indicated that Asian learners,

generally, had higher levels of foreign language use anxiety than other groups of language learners. The highest levels were observed among Korean and Chinese learners.

Although initial analyses failed to support the three original hypotheses, further analyses showed complete dismissal of the hypotheses to be short-sighted. Further discussions are provided.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Many people in the world think English is a global language and worth learning either in order to enrich their lives or to advance in their careers. In order to be proficient in the language, many of them spend enormous amounts of money, effort, and time with a belief that those who do so will be rewarded. Despite their efforts, unfortunately, few adult language learners seem to be able to reach a high level of language proficiency to become a confident user of English as a foreign/second language. Moreover, during this learning process, many of them seem to undergo enormous feelings of frustration.

In the field of second language acquisition, many researchers have focused on examining possible negative emotions that learners may have. Foreign language anxiety is one of the major variables that has been studied. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986: p.128) conceptualize foreign language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to language learning process." Similarly, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993: p.5) defined language anxiety as "the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient." That is, a negative belief mixed with a negative outcome expectation such as “I can’t

express myself fully in a foreign language although I am an adult and can do it well in my native language" or "I need to be perfect the way I am in my native language" seems to be positively related to levels of anxiety.

Several studies support the argument that foreign language anxiety is one of the major predictor variables of foreign language learning (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Garder, 1989, 1994a, 1994b). Those who can control their level of anxiety and keep it low tend to succeed in their language learning (cf. Gardner, 1985b). This is because a high level of anxiety not only interferes with learners' cognitive learning processing (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a, 1994b), but also interacts with other important personality related variables such as self-perception (Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999; Kim, 2000), self-confidence (Clément, 1987), beliefs (Horwitz, 1988), personality (Price, 1991), and self-esteem (Young, 1991).

Although extensive work has been done on language anxiety and self-perceptions, little research has focused on student perceptions about language learning in terms of their attributions of success or failure. There are several reasons that this area requires researchers' attention. First, attributions are significant because they deal with perceptions including perceived causes of success and failure. The causes of success and failure have often been studied in terms of "locus of control" in the field of social psychology. Locus of control has

been shown to be related to the level of anxiety and achievement. Therefore, it is reasonable to suggest that attributions are also related to foreign language anxiety and achievement. Those attributions may affect foreign language student beliefs about the ability to learn languages, which in turn affects whether students will continue their study in foreign language programs (Tse, 2000).

Second, studies of attribution can shed light on motivation in second language acquisition. Motivation has been shown to be related to both anxiety and achievement. However, studies on motivation in second language acquisition (cf. Clément, Gardner, & Smythe, 1980; Gardner, 2001a; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Gliksman, Gardner, & Smythe, 1982; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989) tend to underscore the complexity of the construct (Lim, 2002). Tremblay and Gardner (1995) pointed out that variables from other fields (e.g., social psychology) may be useful in developing a fuller understanding of how motivation functions to influence language learning. Attribution theory holds great promise despite the fact that it has not been widely studied by second language acquisition theorists (Williams & Burden, 1997).

Incorporating attribution theory in studies of second language acquisition may also provide some insights about the potential relationships between anxiety and motivation. Introducing attributions and perceptions specifically into second language research can help clarify our understanding of motivation and anxiety.

Though previous research has sometimes dealt implicitly with the concept, it is time to provide a more systematic examination.

Recently, Lim (2003a) has suggested a possible relationship between motivation and anxiety using attributions. She suggests that anxiety is more likely to occur when one has more extrinsic values. Extrinsic values are generally determined by outside resources including social demands, social values, or pressures from parents, etc. When failure occurs, one may experience high levels of anxiety due to pressure from the outside. That is, extrinsic values that have been reinforced by external pressure may increase the level of anxiety.

However, when we deal with perceptions and values, we can never fully understand the nature of them only within a framework of individual characteristics. Perceptions are developed within a community or culture. Attributions involve perceptions. Thus, it is crucial to include the possible effects of cultural influence in order to better understand how one constructs perceptions and moreover, the disposition of attributions.

Similarly, foreign language anxiety is seen as one of many anxieties known to researchers as social anxieties (Schwarzer, 1986). Schwarzer (1986) describes social anxiety as feelings of tension combined with the tendency to withdraw from others and to evaluate one's self negatively. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) advocate that foreign language anxiety is situation-specific in the

sense that individuals feel different levels of anxiety depending on how they appraise and perceive given situations. If anxiety is situation specific and related to social anxieties, events that are shared in a culture can be perceived in a similar way. That is, it is possible to assume that when learners go through a similar educational system and learn similar societal values, their perceptions about language learning can be shared in a community.

One important issue in research on foreign language anxiety suggests that the perceived level of anxiety is related to learners' cultural orientations. Although there is no exact comparison study, some research shows that Korean EFL learners have a high level of language speaking (Truitt, 1995; Kim, 1998) and listening apprehension (Kim, 2000). In studies related to foreign language writing anxiety, Taiwanese show a high level of anxiety (Cheng, 1998). And all of these studies show that foreign language anxiety is negatively correlated with self-perception and imply that self-perception is not just an individual characteristic, but also a culturally situated and reinforced behavior.

In addition to affecting self-perception, culture also affects peoples' perceptions of the world. Studies show that cultural (i.e., individualism, collectivism) variability affects anxiety (Gudykunst, 1998). According to the literature in social psychology (cf. Triandis, 1995), individualists tend to attribute events to internal individual causes more frequently than collectivists, who tend to

attribute them to external causes (Newman, 1993). That is, there seems a tendency of perceiving causes of outcomes depending on particular cultural constructs. Since attributions are possibly related to anxiety, it is reasonable to assume that learners' cultural constructs may also be related to anxiety.

In addition, part of being fluent in a language means one has to demonstrate not only linguistic but sociolinguistic competence. In so doing, it is possible that the sociolinguistic demands of the target and background cultures may clash and learners may be confronted with chaos. These sociolinguistic demands include learning a new set of customs, learning to think and organize in new ways, and learning new interaction patterns between people. These new beliefs, cognitions, practices, and perceptions developed in their native cultures may have to change. Some of the anxiety that learners may face in learning English can relate to this shift of perceptions (Benson, Chik, & Lim, 2003).

By including causal attributions and cultural constructs into the study of foreign language acquisition, we can better understand if and why foreign language anxiety may be more pervasive in certain cultural groups. This could suggest ways to tackle students' anxiety in multicultural language learning settings. All of this, taken together, suggests that it is worthwhile to examine foreign language anxiety within a framework that considers both individual learner characteristics and cultural constructs.

Therefore, this study primarily examines any possible effects of perceived locus of control and cultural constructs on foreign language use anxiety. Since the study is intended to examine foreign language anxiety in different cultural contexts, learners from various cultures were recruited for the study.

1.2. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The major purpose of the present study is to investigate the effects of locus of control and cultural constructs on foreign language anxiety. The main research questions addressed by this study are listed below.

(1) Is there any relationship between task values regarding the outcomes of foreign language learning and foreign language use anxiety?

(2) Is there any relationship between the perceptions that learners have about the causes of the outcomes (i.e., perceived locus of control and attribution) of foreign language learning and the level of foreign language use anxiety?

(3) Is there any relationship between cultural constructs (i.e., collectivism versus individualism) and foreign language use anxiety?

(4) Is foreign language use anxiety related to general background factors such as gender, major, native country, and English language learning backgrounds such as years in English speaking countries, frequency of

use of English, years of studying English, TOEFL scores, oral proficiency scores and self assessment of ability?

1.3. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The findings from this study can contribute to theoretical development in the field of second/foreign language acquisition by integrating theoretical foundations from two research traditions: social psychology and second language acquisition. Because the area of second language acquisition is interdisciplinary and can better be explored by incorporating contributions from other disciplines, this study can expand the horizons of studies of second language acquisition beyond its own discipline and contribute to the development of theories in second language acquisition.

This study also expands the research in foreign language anxiety from simply regarding anxiety as an individual learner characteristic to considering it as part of a broader context of culture. Cultural constructs developed in social psychology may provide systematic explanations of the relationship between anxiety and cultures that has been questioned in the field of second language acquisition. By providing empirical data, this view may be able to provide some insights into how individual perceptions reflect social cultural influences.

This study contributes to the current learning theories based on socioconstructivism. The trend of examining learning as a sociocultural process (Block, 1996; Breen, 2001; Ellis, 1994, 1999; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001; Long, 1997; Pavlenko & Lantolf; 2000) promises that learners benefit when the curriculum incorporates their cultural backgrounds. By understanding learners' perceptions as being rooted in background cultures, researchers and teachers may be able to achieve better understandings about how language is processed through cognition and emotion.

The practical implication of the study concerns helping teachers understand their students better in a multicultural classroom, creating a positive learning environment which increases confidence thereby, reducing levels of anxiety. This study also suggests some ways to bridge the cultural gaps which may occur and exist in multicultural classrooms. Findings of this research can be practically used for foreign/second language teachers to understand various students' perceptions and behaviors in multicultural classrooms. Therefore, it has implications for classroom methodology and teacher training.

1.4. OVERVIEW OF THE DISSERTATION

In this chapter, the statement of the problem, the purpose and the significance of the present study have been stated. Chapter Two includes a review

of literature on foreign language anxiety, task values, attribution, and cultural constructs. Their relationships to foreign/second language learning are also reviewed. This literature review provides rationale for the major research hypotheses for the study. Chapter Three concerns the overall research methodology including sampling, instruments, data collection procedures, and scoring methods used to test the hypotheses. The findings and examinations of the hypotheses are presented in Chapter Four. Chapter Five reports a discussion of the findings, limitations, implications of the study, and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Researchers and practitioners have often questioned why some learners learn and achieve better than others, and a number of factors that can predict these learners' individual differences have been explored. Among those variables, researchers agree that emotions play a large role in human learning because cognition is inseparable from how learners feel when they learn (cf. Ekman, 1992a, 1992b, 1992c; Fiedler & Forgas, 1987; Lazarus, 1991; Ottaviani & Beck, 1988). When learners enjoy their learning, they tend to be more motivated to expend effort and persist in their learning. By so doing, they tend to achieve more in learning. On the other hand, when learners experience negative feelings in learning, they seem to struggle more not to have a negative impact from these feelings about their learning. If not, they give up and their achievement suffers.

While studies on motivation and emotion take great pains to explain learner differences in educational psychology, anxiety and motivation have also been extensively examined in the field of second/foreign language acquisition (cf. Gardner, 1985b, 2001a; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a, 1994b). With an extension of the major research stream in second language acquisition, the present study explores how individuals' cognitive characteristics such as perceptions, values, and attribution, impact their level of anxiety.

Moreover, by examining the impact of culture on anxiety, a previously unexplored relationship, the present study can suggest a more systematic explanation of the role of anxiety in second/foreign language acquisition.

In this chapter, sections include previous theoretical and empirical studies of anxiety in general educational psychology and second/foreign language acquisition focusing on its roles and effects on learning. Based on the previous literature, new ways to discuss the roles of anxiety and cognition will be suggested and integrated in the framework of the present study.

2.1. GENERAL ANXIETY

2.1.1. Conceptualizations

Anxiety is defined as "subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry, and by activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (Spielberger, 1983, p.1). Since it is a subjective feeling of nervousness and worry, individuals experience different levels of anxiety depending on their personality and/or personal situations. Cattell and Scheier (1960) tried to characterize different types of anxiety systematically and coined the terms "state" and "trait" anxiety (cf. Lazarus, 1966; Spielberger, 1966, 1972, 1973, 1975). State anxiety refers to a temporary anxiety state whereas trait anxiety means a high proneness or predisposition to experience anxiety (Levitt, 1980). Individuals with

state anxiety tend to experience anxiety about a specific thing for a short period of time while people with trait anxiety experience feelings of anxiety for broader subjects far more frequently than others. For example, individuals with state anxiety may experience mental blocking before a pop quiz but when the test is done, the anxiety disappears. On the other hand, the trait disposition of anxiety tends to develop for a long period of time within the individual similar to other personality traits. In contrast to state anxiety, in trait anxiety the person is primary and the situations are secondary (Levitt, 1980).

Social scientists (cf. Murray, 1938; Basowitz, Persky, Korchin, & Grinker, 1955; Endler, 1975) take the characteristics of trait anxiety more analytically and have proposed situation-specific anxiety. The basic tenant of this position is that individuals' specific threatening situations should count to explain their holistic anxiety tendencies. Specific situations need to be summed to examine a general trait anxiety. Similarly, a specific trait can also be related to the specific threatening stimulus in the experimental situation that measures a specific state of anxiety.

In sum, many studies on anxiety have developed within the framework of a distinction between state anxiety and trait anxiety. State anxiety is characterized as momentary and situational whereas trait anxiety is a personality characteristic with a high proneness to experience state anxiety (Levitt, 1980). Situation-specific

anxiety is a variation of trait anxiety and a way of studying the multidimensional characteristics of anxiety.

2.1.2. The Impact of Anxiety on Learning

Research on anxiety is important in that it contributes to our understanding of the algorithm of human learning. Anxiety influences both cognitive and motivational processes in learning. Studies on anxiety shed light on memory, attentional control, and retrieval efficiency in learning. In addition, anxiety interacts with motivational orientations (e.g., intrinsic and extrinsic), thereby determining learners' actions in learning. This section includes a discussion of how anxiety functions in connection with cognition and motivation in learning.

2.1.2.1. Cognitive Effects

The cognitive paradigm explains that learning occurs when learners can respond to an event by retrieving the information from memory that they have stored. Learners need to pay focused attention to a sensory register to save information in their memory storage. Anxiety plays a detrimental effect on this cognitive learning process (cf. Covington, 1992; Eysenck, 1987, 1991; Schwarzer & Wicklund, 1991).

From this perspective, a major effect of elevated anxiety is the disturbance of focused attention in learning. People have limited attentional capacity and emotions tend to occupy a person's mind. Thus, negative emotions such as anxiety disturb learners' attention. According to the cognitive paradigm for learning, anxiety occupies capacity in working memory, which implies that the remaining capacity may not be sufficient to process tasks that need those resources (Eysenck, 1988; Wine, 1971).

Test anxiety, one particularly widely studied anxiety type in education, has been associated with learners' capacity for attention control. Learners with high levels of anxiety have less control of attention and thus process less information leading them to perform poorly at difficult or complex tasks. Indeed, researchers have found a negative correlation between test anxiety and task difficulty and achievement (Hembree, 1988; Sarason, 1980, 1986; Schwarzer, Seipp, & Schwarzer, 1989).

Another impact of anxiety on learning concerns cognitive strategy use in processing information. Learners with positive emotions outperformed others in holistic and creative thinking skills (Isen, Daubmann, & Nowicki, 1987) whereas learners with negative emotions performed well in analytical and detail-focused information processing (cf. Schwarz & Bless, 1991). That is, anxiety, as a negative emotion, draws overly compulsive attention to detail. Anxious learners

often overstudy to compensate for the slowness of the detail-focused process of information.

With respect to the relationship between anxiety and cognitive processes, researchers have found that anxiety plays a negative role in various cognitive processes in incidental learning, problem-solving, and verbal communication skills. For instance, Silverman's (1954) experiment showed that learners under neutral conditions recalled twice as many unintentionally learned words than learners under pressure. That is, anxiety prevents learners from focusing on the task and disturbs both short term and long term memory. Anxiety has an interfering effect on incidental learning (cf. Imam, 1972; Spielberger, Goodstein, & Dahlstrom, 1958).

Similarly, researchers (cf. Schultz, 1964; Leeper, 1948; Patrick, 1934a, 1934b; Hamilton, 1916; Harleston, 1962) have claimed that intense anxiety causes a disorganizing effect on information processing. Anxiety disrupts the ability to conduct problem-solving learning tasks that require integration of previous learning into a "real-life" situation.

In the examination of anxiety on the ability to communicate, Gynther (1957) concluded that a low anxious group communicated more effectively than a high anxious group. Further, Murray (1971) found a curvilinear relationship between the ability to communicate and levels of anxiety. The quantity of

verbalization also rises with anxiety to an optimum and then falls off (cf. Higbee, 1969).

In sum, studies have shown that a high level of anxiety has negative effects on learning and academic achievement. Anxiety has a negative impact on cognitive process in learning by limiting focused attention and storing and retrieving memory. Moreover, anxiety utilizes different strategies of information processing and disorganizes information processing. Because of these detrimental effects, learners with high anxiety perform less effectively on incidental learning, problem-solving tasks, and verbal communication than their counterparts.

2.1.2.2. Motivational Effects

Whereas the cognitive effects of anxiety on learning have been studied pervasively, motivational effects have been largely neglected until recently (Dweck & Wortman, 1982; Pekrun, 1992b). In examining such effects, a model proposed by Yerkes and Dodson (1908) provides dichotomous effects of anxiety and motivation related to intrinsic tasks and extrinsic tasks can provide some insights on how anxiety may interact with motivation in learning.

One of the earliest scientific principles examining the relationship between anxiety and learning is the Yerkes-Dodson Law (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908). Yerkes and Dodson's experimental examination has shown a U-shaped

curvilinear relationship between anxiety and learning. A low level of anxiety facilitates learning only slightly or not at all whereas a high anxiety level was found to interfere with the learning process. The optimal level of anxiety lies in the middle range of anxiety intensity and appears to stimulate the best performance.

According to the Yerkes-Dodson Law, anxiety is conceptualized as a drive which is a fundamental concept of motivation (Levitt, 1980). That is, the reason that a little bit of anxiety facilitates learning is that anxiety triggers a motivation from learners to initiate an effort to achieve a goal. On the other hand, too much anxiety tends to debilitate learners' performance.

The Yerkes-Dodson Law also states that a similar curvilinear relationship exists between anxiety and performance with respect to the function of task difficulty. When the task is easy, learners perform better with a lower level of anxiety than when the task is difficult. The optimal level of anxiety that facilitates performance on a simple task seems to disrupt it when the task is more complex.

Recently, Pekrun (1992b) examined ways in which motivation impacts anxiety. Since anxiety is a task-related emotion, anxiety is closely related to achievement motivation. Traditionally, task motivation has been examined in two categories: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation refers to the

motivation directed at performing an action for its own sake and extrinsic motivation referring to motivation with outcome expectations.

In the case of intrinsic motivation, since learners are involved with the task for the pure enjoyment of the task, positive emotions tend to accompany this motivation. For example, when learners take an informal foreign language course for the purpose of getting familiar with the language without the pressure of grades, they can enjoy the process of learning with little interference from anxiety. That is, intrinsic motivation generally induces positive emotions (cf. Csikszentmihalyi, 1985).

However, when learners have a high expectation regarding certain outcomes (e.g., grades, parents' satisfaction, career consequences), anxiety is easily linked to extrinsic motivation (Pekrun, 1992a, 1992b). Debilitating anxiety can trigger motivation to avoid negative outcomes. When effort does not lead to the avoidance of negative outcomes, learners can experience "learned helplessness" (cf. Lim, 2003a; Seligman, 1975) and eventually, reduce motivation to accomplish the task.

Anxiety about failure can cause learners to avoid an activity. Pekrun (1992a) analyzed the outcome-related avoidance motivation according to two learning situations. In "unrestricted" situations (e.g., taking an informal class with no grade pressure), learners tend to avoid assigned tasks for which they have a

fear of failure by not performing the task or by choosing an easy task with no further important consequences. However, in "restricted" situations (e.g., examinations at school), learners who fear failure and negative outcomes tend to enhance their effort so that they can avoid the negative outcomes. In other words, learners who perceive taking no action as equivalent to failure are likely to rely on extrinsic motivators. The effort that learners make in the restricted situations may lead them to be successful in the short run, but since this increased effort is externally generated, these learners may experience high levels of anxiety and reduce the amount of effort when the restricted situations are released. In the event that the restricted situations continue, this increased effort will increase the level of anxiety, thereby having negative effects on learning.

Importantly, intrinsic motivation is closely related to self-concepts and aspiration whereas extrinsic motivation is influenced by sociocultural factors and social reinforcers (Chastain, 1976; Schwartz, 1972). Anxiety plays a detrimental role in extrinsic motivation because the pressure from others or situations plays a bigger role than in the case of intrinsic motivation.

Such a view of motivational effects related to intrinsic and extrinsic tasks carries a significant implication for research on anxiety and motivation. As discussed above, anxiety is a task-related emotion and is closely related to achievement motivation. How individuals perceive the learning situation has a

crucial impact on the level of anxiety. When individuals initiate an action with interest, curiosity, or aspiration for knowledge, they seem to experience less impact from anxiety. On the other hand, when individuals are motivated by social pressure and certain rewards, they tend to be more tied up with the influence of negative emotions such as anxiety, frustration, and worry. Overall, individual perceptions of the task and the situation play a crucial role in forming their values and, thereby, interact with facilitating anxiety which leads to learning and achievement.

2.2. Foreign Language Anxiety

As studies in anxiety have developed in various areas in education (e.g., communication anxiety, test anxiety, performance anxiety), foreign language anxiety has developed specifically in the classroom learning environment of second/foreign language acquisition. This section includes definitions, roles of foreign language anxiety based on second language acquisition theories, and empirical studies discussing the effects of foreign language anxiety. Variables related to foreign language anxiety followed by foreign language use anxiety will be discussed in order to shed light on the directions of the present study.

2.2.1. Definitions

In the seminal study on foreign language anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) defined foreign language anxiety as a "distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p.128). Similarly, Gardner and MacIntyre (1993, p.5) defined language anxiety as "the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient." Adult language learners tend to be vulnerable to language anxiety because many foreign language learners who are not familiar with socio-cultural mores of the target culture experience not only a language barrier but also inadequacy in a target culture. An inability to express themselves fully because of the language and culture creates apprehension about not being able to be themselves in the target language and culture. Because of these unique characteristics involved in language learning, researchers consider foreign language anxiety as a specific form of anxiety different from other types of anxiety.

Foreign language anxiety, as measured by the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was based on such related concepts of anxiety as test taking, communication apprehension, and negative evaluation by others in the classroom learning environment. However, the construct validity test of the

scale (Horwitz, 1986) showed that FLCAS was not correlated with Fear of Negative Evaluation (Watson & Friend, 1969) nor Communication Apprehension (McCroskey, 1970). A moderate correlation ($r = .53$, $p < .01$) was found between the FLCAS and Test Anxiety Scale (Sarason, 1978). About 28% of the variation in foreign language classroom anxiety is explained by test anxiety. Horwitz (1986) concluded that foreign language anxiety was independent from other types of anxieties, regardless of the moderate association with test anxiety.

Other support for the idea that foreign language anxiety is different from general anxiety comes from the view that it is a situation-specific anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986; Horwitz, 1986; Lim, 2003a; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). A significant, but relatively low correlation was found between the FLCAS and Spielberger's (1983) test of trait-anxiety ($r = .29$, $p < .01$). Only 9% of the variation in foreign language anxiety is explained by the test of trait-anxiety. However, according to MacIntyre and Gardner's (1994a) experiment, no significant relationship was found between general trait anxiety and foreign (i.e., French) language vocabulary learning. That is, distinctive language learning processes distinguish foreign language anxiety from other types of anxiety.

The empirical studies suggest that language anxiety, as a situation-specific anxiety, is particular to language learning contexts. Unique aspects of the requirement of mastering language (i.e., communicative and cultural aspects of

language learning) create language anxiety, especially, among adult language learners. This might explain why, for many students, a language class is more anxiety provoking than any other courses at school (Campbell & Ortiz, 1991a; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, 1991b; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley, 1999). Language anxiety concerns negative concepts of themselves as language learners and negative expectations for language learning in the process of foreign language learning.

2.2.2. Roles in Second/Foreign Language Acquisition Theories

In the examination of the roles of anxiety in language learning, some theoretical models need to be explored to explain where anxiety takes a role in the process of language learning. This section includes Krashen's affective filter hypothesis (1982), Schumann's acculturation model (1986), and Gardner's socio-educational model (1985b) in second/foreign language acquisition.

In his model of language acquisition, Krashen (1982) proposed the "affective filter" hypothesis to explain the role of anxiety. Krashen and Terrell (1983) claimed that a high affective filter prevented input from reaching the learner. When learners are in an environment with good rapport, they can acquire a language more effectively than in a high anxiety provoking environment. Learners with a high affective filter tend to be less interactive in speaking and less

confident. Therefore, they are less receptive to the input they get. Anxiety appears to impede learning.

Schumann's (1986) acculturation model expands the horizon of anxiety research to a wider cultural level in language acquisition. Acculturation includes social and psychological variables. Schumann contends that learners acquire the target language to the degree they acculturate to the target language group. Second language acquisition occurs best when the social and psychological distances are low. Anxiety caused by culture shock, language shock, and ego-permeability can hamper learners' ability to open their minds to a target culture and language, and demotivates learners to put in the necessary effort to become proficient in a target language. Acculturation brings the learner into contact with target language speakers, which is crucial to receive appropriate input for language acquisition.

Similarly, Gardner (1985b) proposed a socio-educational model to explain language acquisition. In this model, motivation and attitudes toward the target culture and language are crucial variables in the prediction of success of language acquisition. In his revised form, Gardner (2001a, 2001b) suggested effort, desire, and positive affect as the major elements of motivation. Learners who are willing to put in sufficient effort and who enjoy learning can ultimately achieve second or foreign language proficiency. Here again, a learner's affective condition is latently

embedded in the formation of motivation. Anxiety, one type of negative affect, can play a detrimental role in acculturation to the target language culture.

2.2.3. Effects in Second/Foreign Language Learning and Achievement

2.2.3.1. Motivational Effects

Early researchers found that anxiety in language learning had two different effects. Chastain's (1975) experiment examining the relationship between anxiety and test scores using both the audio-lingual and traditional methods showed that sometimes anxiety debilitated performance while in others performance was enhanced. The results showed that anxious students who learned French using the audio-lingual method performed poorly compared with less anxious students. On the other hand, anxious students who learned German and Spanish with the traditional teaching method scored better on the tests.

Similarly, Kleinmann (1977) studied the effects of anxiety on second language learning related to task difficulty and also found that some anxiety facilitates learners' use of English structures. For example, Spanish learners with "facilitating anxiety" (e.g., "Nervousness while using English helps me do better," Scovel, 1991, p.18) used more infinitive complements and direct object pronouns in English, which were generally avoided by Spanish speakers. Arabic students with "facilitating anxiety" used passive forms more frequently than their peers

who tended to avoid this structure because of its difference from Arabic syntax. This tendency did not occur when learners experienced "debilitating anxiety."

These empirical studies seem to support the early Yerkes-Dodson Law (Yerkes & Dodson, 1908). That is, a low level of anxiety can enhance learning slightly whereas a high anxiety level interferes with the learning process. Spielberger (1983) also explored the effects of anxiety on learning with task difficulty. Anxiety initiates positive motivation for highly intelligent students when a learning task is moderately difficult. However, anxiety triggers negative motivation (e.g., avoidance) for low intelligence students even with an easy learning task.

These apparent inconsistencies may have been due to the fact that the previously cited studies conceptualized anxiety as a personality trait. Subsequent reseach, on the other hand, has conceived of anxiety as situation specific (i.e., state). This reconceptualization from trait to state anxiety has not resulted in the same type of inconsistencies noted earlier. Indeed, the later research has consistently shown that anxiety has negative effects on learning and performance. Those studies also used systematically developed measurements to detect anxiety arising from specific second/foreign language learning situations (e.g., the French Class Anxiety Scale (Gardner, 1985a; MacIntyre, 1988), the English Use Anxiety

Scale (Clément, Gardner, & Symthe, 1977), and the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz et al., 1986).

2.2.3.2. Cognitive Effects

In studying the cognitive effects of anxiety in second language learning, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991c, 1994a, 1994b) conducted a series of experiments. They used Tobias' (1986) cognitive processing model to examine subtle effects of language anxiety at different learning stages: Input, Processing, and Output. Language Anxiety was measured by a scale that includes these three stages of anxiety, French Class Anxiety (Gardner, 1985a), French Use Anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1988a), and the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz et al., 1986).

The studies showed that language anxiety seemed to have distinctive effects on different levels of cognitive processing. For example, in learning French, MacIntyre and Gardner (1994a) found anxious students seemed to have difficulty holding discrete verbal items in short term memory in the input stage. Therefore, they encoded a smaller number of verbal statements for the processing stage. In the processing stage, anxious students also seemed unable to link new knowledge to their prior knowledge. They recalled less often than relaxed counterparts. Because of these effects of anxiety in each stage of learning, anxious

students tended to study longer and to take a longer time to complete the tests. They (1994b) also reported that anxiety aroused by a video camera reduced the students' recognition and recall in second language vocabulary acquisition. That is, anxiety interrupted students' learning at the Processing and Output Stages. Similarly, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991c) found that the stage-specific anxiety negatively affected performance on stage-specific tasks.

Studies examining the effects of language anxiety in terms of learners' performance are more pervasive. Using the FLCAS for measuring language anxiety, Phillips (1992) reported a negative relationship between anxiety and students' performance on oral exam scores. Those with higher anxiety received lower grades and also tended to say less and use fewer structures that had been covered in class. Moreover, the interview with anxious students revealed that they described their feelings about the oral exam experience using negative terms such as "nervous", "tense", "intimidated", and so on.

Steinberg and Horwitz (1986) found that those who experienced intentionally aroused anxiety produced less interpretive descriptions than those in the control group. This supports the idea that foreign language anxiety debilitates performance.

Studies using course grades as a performance measure also showed similar results. Horwitz et al. (1986) reported a negative correlation between the FLCAS

scores and final course grades. Many anxious students experienced a mental block or forgetfulness in their exams. The anxiety tended to cause them to overstudy. More importantly, they had a fear of negative evaluation and expressed learned helplessness. These factors also led to reduce performance.

Aida (1994) also found the same result in her study of Japanese language learning students at a university. A significant negative relationship was found between the FLCAS scores and their final course grades. The high anxiety group received significantly lower grades than the low anxiety group.

A similar pattern was found for high school students (Gardner, Smythe, & Lalonde, 1984; Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft, & Evers, 1987; Gardner, Moorcroft, & MacIntyre, 1987). For example, Sanchez-Herrero and Sanchez (1992) administered the English Class Anxiety Scale from the Attitude/Motivational Test Battery (Gardner & Smythe, 1981) to junior high school students learning English in Spain and found that students with low levels of anxiety had higher English achievement scores, as measured by oral comprehension, grammar, and cloze tests.

However, results are not uniform across all studies on the effects of anxiety. Young (1986) examined foreign language anxiety among prospective foreign language teachers in Texas. Although negative correlations were initially found between the FLCAS scores and the scores on the Oral Proficiency

Interview (OPI), these turned out to be nonsignificant after removing the effects of the other proficiency measures. From this, the author concluded that ability, not anxiety, was the main variable affecting the OPI scores.

Young's data (1986) draws an interesting question. Does anxiety cause low levels of proficiency as the above research has shown or do low levels of proficiency result in high levels of anxiety? Sparks and Ganschow (1991, 1993a, 1993b) claim that poor language learning is a cause rather than a result of language anxiety. In their model, Sparks and Ganschow (1995) have proposed "Linguistic Coding Difference Hypothesis (LCDH)" that learner differences in foreign language learning are linked to the ability to encode native language learning. Foreign language learning difficulties are primarily caused by native language learning difficulties in mastering the phonological, syntactic, and semantic codes of a language. Their empirical studies (Sparks & Ganschow, 1996; Ganschow, Sparks, Anderson, Javorsky, Skinner, & Patton, 1994; Sparks & Ganschow, 1991, 1993a; Sparks, Ganschow, & Artzer, 1997) have shown that a low level of anxiety group has significantly lower levels of native language ability and foreign language aptitude. Therefore, anxiety about foreign language learning is likely to be related to anxiety about native language learning (Sparks & Ganschow, 1995).

MacIntyre (1995) and Horwitz (2000) have criticized the LCDH because it ignores a fundamental paradigm of cognitive theory that emotion, cognition, and behavior are interrelated in human learning. Indeed, anxiety can affect cognitive processing. There are also anxious language learners who evaluate their proficiency level lower than they are, particularly in a foreign language. Their anxiety level might be high but not necessarily suffer from native language code deficit. More importantly, language learning is beyond learning codes of a language but it should be expanded to acquiring social and cultural knowledge. Limiting the success of language learning to linguistic mastery is a confined perspective in language learning.

Recently, Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, and Daley (2000) have ruled out the LCDH in their comprehensive study of finding predictors of foreign language achievement. The predictive power of anxiety is too large to ignore even after academic achievement (as an indicator of native language proficiency) is controlled. Therefore, the research suggests a need for continued exploration of the effects of anxiety for students who have no native language difficulties but suffer from debilitating effects of foreign language anxiety.

2.2.4. Variables Related to Foreign Language Anxiety

2.2.4.1. Learners' Self-perceptions, Self-confidence, and Beliefs

One of the major variables related to foreign language anxiety is self-perception about foreign language learning ability. Research suggests that individuals' perceptions of their level of ability influence their level of anxiety which, in turn, affects the achievement of language proficiency (cf. Cheng et al., 1999; Kim, 2000; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1988b; MacIntyre, Noels, & Clément, 1997). Individuals' perceptions about negative outcomes caused by low perceived ability result in lower self-esteem or confidence. Some of the causes are induced by individuals' beliefs about language learning.

MacIntyre and his colleagues (MacIntyre et al., 1997) examined learners' apprehension about communicating to explore its relationship to perceptions of communicative competence in a second language. Thirty-seven adult Anglophone students in Canada were recruited. Language anxiety was measured by Gardner's French use anxiety and French class anxiety scales (cf. MacIntyre & Gardner, 1988a) and self-perceptions were measured by the "can-do" test (Clark, 1981) in four language skills: speaking, reading, writing, and comprehension. The results showed that actual competence, perceived competence, and language anxiety were all negatively correlated with all four language skills. As language anxiety scores increase, the ratings of ideas expressed, output quality, and self-rated

competence decline. More importantly, further analysis showed that anxious students tended to underestimate their ability compared to less anxious students. Because of their low self-ratings, anxious students seemed to have low self-confidence and hesitated to speak in class. Thus, they lost the opportunity to improve their language proficiency and thereby, remained as high anxious learners. This again reinforces the perception that low ability decreases confidence and escalates their level of anxiety.

More data support the argument that self-perceived competence affects language anxiety and language skill specific anxieties in language learning. Cheng et al. (1999) have found that low self-confidence is related to high writing anxiety among Taiwanese university students. Kim (2000) has also shown that lack of self-confidence in listening creates listening anxiety among South Korean university students.

Related to ability perception, research has shown that students experience anxiety when they have negative expectations about outcomes. One of the direct ways of showing the outcome of learning is through tests. Because of a low perception of their ability and high anxiety, students seem unable to have a positive expectation about their tests. For example, Phillips (1990, 1992) has found that those with higher anxiety tend to receive lower grades and also to say less and use fewer structures studied in class. Anxiety is created by negative

expectations about the result of a test along with a high value on the consequences of tests.

Many language learners regard speaking in the class as a testing situation. When they speak in class, they believe their peers and the instructor are evaluating their language proficiency (Bailey, 1983; Horwitz et al., 1986; Phillips, 1990, 1992; Price, 1991; Young, 1990). Because of this fear of negative evaluation by others, students may try to be perfect. However, unless they have a great command of the language, making mistakes is inevitable. When learners do not accept this reality of language learning, they are likely to suffer from anxiety.

Research on learner beliefs has shown that many language learners have unrealistic beliefs about language learning. Horwitz's (1988) survey shows that some U.S. university students learning French, Spanish, and German hold several unrealistic beliefs regarding language aptitude, importance of perfect pronunciation, correctness, and the length of time required for becoming fluent in the target languages. Kern (1995) and Truitt (1995) also have found that students tend to underestimate the time span necessary to learn a foreign language. Some language learners believe that pronunciation is the most important aspect of language learning (Cohen & Norst, 1989; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). For many adult foreign language learners, mastering native-like pronunciation is one the most frustrating components in language learning. Some of the unrealistic beliefs may

lead to frustration and anxiety as the reality of language learning conflicts with ideals and students encounter difficulty.

Overall, anxiety seems to be closely related to negative competence perceptions and unrealistic beliefs. Low ability perceptions lead to negative expectations of performance in class. Learners, in turn, hesitate to speak in class and lose the opportunity to improve their learning. Ultimately, anxious learners may lose confidence and achieve less. This vicious cycle may repeat itself. Learners may experience helplessness in language learning or even give up.

2.2.4.2. Previous Language Learning Experience

Language anxiety also seems to be related to previous learning experience. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989, 1991c) claim that learners form emotions and attitudes about learning a new language based on previous experiences with the second language context. If students constantly have negative experiences, they are likely to develop negative emotions such as nervousness, worry, and frustration and perform poorly. The cumulative negative experiences result in negative expectations about learning a second language. On the contrary, positive experiences and increased achievement reduce anxiety. Learners, then, are more likely to enjoy their learning process and perform better with reduced anxiety.

Campbell and Ortiz's (1991b) research has supported MacIntyre and Gardner's position. They used the FLCAS and their Survey of Attitudes Specific to the Foreign Language Classroom with beginning adult foreign language learners. They found that the level of students' anxiety was twice as high at the beginning than at the end of the course. A majority of students carried their previous negative learning experience into the new learning environment and anxious students particularly might have lost an opportunity to jump start in class.

Similarly, Samimy and Rardin (1994) found in their six-year examination of graduate students' reflection papers, that learners consistently stated that their language anxiety stemmed from past negative language learning experience. For their students, anxiety was mainly caused by unpleasant experiences in the language classroom, preoccupation with making errors, and unsuccessful outcomes. Although instructors tried to create a new classroom environment reducing anxiety, anxiety caused by students' previous negative experiences continued until midway through the class. As Young (1994) hypothesized, in her review article on foreign language anxiety research, language anxiety in part might be the consequence of negative experiences in language learning.

A majority of learners form their own learning beliefs about language learning based on their previous learning experiences. When their perceptions are tied to a certain emotion, it is not easy to change this perception. Learners recall

the combination of emotion and perception simultaneously. When anxiety comes with negative experiences of language learning, learners may not be able to easily change a negative expectation about language learning.

2.2.4.3. Contextual Variables: Instructional Activities and Learning Atmosphere

Some instructional conditions seem to affect the level of language anxiety in class. Several studies examined instructional techniques and activities that provoke anxiety among students. Koch and Terrell (1991) found that most students felt nervous in oral quizzes, being called on individually, and large group discussion (i.e., a group of 7 to 15 students or an entire class). On the other hand, students felt comfortable in vocabulary learning using pictures and association, personalizing grammar presentations, and working in pairs. Young (1990) similarly reported that students in her study felt more comfortable participating in oral activities in small groups than in front of the whole class. Many students tended to be intimidated when they had to speak the target language in front of an audience (Horwitz et al., 1986; Price, 1991; Young, 1991)

However, the cause of anxiety in instructional activities needs to be explained with caution. In Koch and Terrell's study, 40% of the students did not feel much anxiety by being called on individually whereas 57% did. In addition,

32% felt that error correction was anxiety provoking whereas 30% felt that the way in which teachers engaged in error correction evoked anxiety rather than the simple act of being corrected. That is, the learning atmosphere created by a teacher may have an effect on learners' emotions.

Samimy and Rardin (1994) found that students started to feel comfortable midway through the course, when they felt the instructors genuinely cared about students' progress with their calm, smiley, and friendly manners. Then, students were more relaxed and participated more in discussion and class activities than they had early in the course.

Instructors' attitudes are closely related to their instructional beliefs and this can create anxiety among students. Brandl (1987) found that a majority of instructors believed in keeping distance from their students and agreed on the importance of intimidation as a necessary motivator. Young (1991) noted that when instructors believed in the role of a drill sergeant in their instruction and in constant error correction, they were more likely to escalate students' anxiety level.

More interestingly, when there is a cultural conflict between cultures, students can suffer from anxiety. Allemand and Aida (1994; cited in Oh, 1996) investigated native Japanese instructors' teaching styles and how their teaching styles affected students' emotions at a university in the U.S.. One of the instructors had a very harsh and strict manner in all aspects of his conduct in

class. He created an atmosphere of "terror" in his class. Eventually, students were anxious and afraid in the classroom. These manners are possibly rooted in a previous learning environment focusing on memorizing and building a teacher's authority in Japan. The conflict between a native Japanese teacher's style and American students' beliefs about learning can cause an unwelcoming learning environment and can escalate students' level of anxiety.

Regarding the impact of classroom climate on students' levels of foreign language anxiety, Palacios (1998) found that anxiety was negatively related to the level of perceived teacher support. The more the teacher talks openly with students, the more students feel the teacher trusts them, and the more the teacher shows interest in students' ideas, the less anxiety the students experience in the classroom. When a teacher creates a classroom environment where students can be connected among themselves, have less competition, and have a clear task orientation, students can lower anxiety levels.

Similarly, a diary study studied by Cohen and Norst (1989) revealed that personal qualities of the teacher were ranked first, above professional skill and knowledge of L2. Students in their study regained their self-confidence in classroom language learning when the teacher was supportive, encouraging, and enthusiastic. These characteristics create a non-threatening and generally positive attitude which can develop a warm empathetic relationship with a student. With

the empathy is created between a teacher and a student, some students want to reward the teacher by achieving.

The implication of these studies related to instructors' choice of activities, beliefs, and classroom climate, is that the learning context affects levels of anxiety. The instructor's humanistic approach and a welcoming learning environment can create a positive learning climate. Learners in a positive climate will be more likely to share this positive learning experience than learners in the negative climate who will develop negative emotions. Anxiety seemed to be determined, in part, by the cultural contexts to which the learners belong.

2.2.4.4. Motivation

Motivation in second language acquisition has been explored extensively based on the socio-educational model proposed by Gardner and his colleagues (cf. Clément et al., 1980; Gardner, 2001a; Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Gliksman, Gardner, & Smythe 1982; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Much research has measured motivation by using the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery. This scale includes integrative and instrumental orientations, attitudes toward the learning situation, and language anxiety. In his revised model, Gardner (2001a; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993) defined motivation as the composite of the desire to achieve a goal, effort required

to achieve the goal, and attitudes toward the related task. Although motivation continues to be an important variable in second language acquisition, the link to anxiety needs to be examined explicitly.

Considering the fact that motivation and anxiety have been researched extensively as primary predictor variables in second language acquisition, one might presume that the relationship between these variables should have been studied. Surprisingly, however, not many studies have directly and explicitly examined the relationship between anxiety and motivation especially in the domain of language learning.

Lim (2003a) proposed some theoretical relationships between anxiety and motivation in foreign language learning. Based on expectancy-value theory and attribution theory in educational psychology, she proposed a hypothesis focusing on the relationship between learner's task values regarding the outcome of foreign language learning and levels of anxiety. In her model, individual locus of control, as a mediating variable, is seen as playing a crucial role in language learning because it affects the level of self-efficacy and eventually influences the level of anxiety. That is, learners who attribute the cause of the outcome to internally controllable variables tend to have a high level of self-efficacy while those who attribute success or failure to externally controlled factors seem to have low level of self-efficacy. Anxiety results from high task values, individually uncontrolled

events, and/or a low level of self-efficacy. Her framework will be revisited fully in the next discussion of expanding studies of foreign language anxiety.

2.2.5. Foreign Language Use Anxiety

As discussed earlier, research generally supports the argument that foreign language anxiety is a situation specific anxiety that occurs specifically in language learning related situations (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Recently, some researchers have even suggested that different types of language skills should be addressed specifically in measuring foreign language anxiety. These aspects could include such things as foreign language reading anxiety (Saito, Horwitz, & Garza, 1999), foreign language writing anxiety (Cheng et al., 1999), and foreign language listening anxiety (Kim, 2000). Traditionally, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz et al., 1986) measures language anxiety that occurs in classroom learning situations, but anxiety that learners have in using a foreign language may occur outside of the classroom context. The French Class Anxiety Scale (Gardner & Smythe, 1975), the English Use Anxiety Scale (Clément et al., 1977), the French Use Anxiety Scale (Gardner, Smythe, & Clément, 1979), and the Spanish Use Anxiety Scale (Muchnick & Wolfe, 1982) measure learner's levels of anxiety in real life speaking situations including social gatherings, restaurants, schools, on the street, and on the phone.

Language learning environments are diverse and different contexts have to be considered by adjusting questionnaires to detect social sensitivity of the questionnaires.

2.3. Expanding the Orientations of Research on Foreign Language Anxiety

2.3.1. Expectancy-Value Theory of Anxiety

Expectancy-value theory is one of the most dominant theories used to explain human behaviors in psychology. Its basic assumption is that human beings determine their behavior depending on the perceived likelihood that a behavior will lead to a goal and on the subjective value of that goal. The greater the belief that the goal will be obtained and the higher the value of that goal, the greater the motivational tendency to engage in a given behavior (Weiner, 1986, 1991a, 1991b).

Pekrun (1984, 1985, 1988, 1992a) has used expectancy-value theory to explain the algorithm of anxiety. Pekrun suggests that anxiety is basically a product of the expectancies of negative future outcomes and the subjective value of these outcomes. Hence, anxiety occurs when learners expect negative events and when they value highly the outcome of the events. This function is a combination of total expectancy and total valence.

Total expectancies are composed of three components: (1) a belief that a negative situation will occur (situation-outcome expectancies); (2) a belief that preventative actions can be taken (action-control expectancies); and (3) a belief that such action will be effective (action-outcome expectancies). Total valences, on the other hand, are comprised of two components: (1) subjective evaluations (intrinsic valences of outcomes) and (2) others' evaluations about self (extrinsic valences of outcomes). Total expectancy is assumed to be high when the situation-outcome expectation of the event is high, but action-control and/or action-outcome expectations are low. Total valence is high when the combination of the appraisal of the intrinsic and extrinsic valences of outcomes is high. In this model, anxiety is believed to be higher when both expectancy and valence are high, but only if negative situation-outcome expectancies result in negative valences of the outcome. Negative expectancies and valences may be regarded as primary determinants of human anxiety (by mediating relations between anxiety and achievement and the influence of social factors on anxiety).

Relating this approach to second language acquisition, we can consider the example of two learners; "A" who is taking a foreign language class as a requirement and “B” who is taking the class for fun in order to take a vacation in a different country. Assuming that they both have a high value on language learning, "A" will be more likely to have a higher level of anxiety than "B"

because "A" presumably attaches greater consequences to failure than "B." In order to avoid a negative outcome, "A" may think he/she should study hard, attend class religiously, do what the instructor says, and so on. However, if "A" doesn't have any expectation that these preventative actions will work, he/she will be more likely to have some level of anxiety (Action-Control expectancy). If he/she believes that preventive actions will work, he/she will experience less or no anxiety.

Indeed, studies on foreign language anxiety have shown that one of the causes of foreign language anxiety comes from negative expectations that learners have carried over from their previous negative learning experiences. Many studies show that adult learners experience anxiety because of their negative expectations about the outcomes of their learning (i.e., grades, oral test, and oral presentation) (cf. Campbell & Ortiz, 1991b; Horwitz et al., 1986; Price, 1991; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991c; Phillips, 1992; Samimy & Rardin, 1994). Young (1994) explained her findings regarding anxiety and oral proficiency by stating that participants had no negative expectations because the oral examination was not "official." The implication is that negative expectations tend to affect higher levels of anxiety only if they are accompanied by actual negative consequences.

When learners have unrealistic beliefs, they may set up preventative actions. For example, when learners believe that they can master a foreign

language within two or three years by attending a regular language class at a university, they will probably soon realize that this action will not lead them to master the target language. When adult learners have a great expectation about native-like pronunciation and attend English language classes in their own country, they will also probably find out that what they are doing is not sufficient to achieve their goal. Still, it is hard to set up preventative actions to achieve such goals in language learning. That is, the possibility that any preventative actions (action-outcome expectancies) will work is slim. These learners are likely to suffer from frustration and anxiety. That is, learners should have realistic goals that they can work with and that can satisfy their expectations.

Expectancy-value theory provides another interesting explanation regarding perceptions about classroom learning environments. Faced with the same activities that possibly raise levels of anxiety, learners may experience different feelings depending on their perceptions. For example, Koch and Terrell (1991) reported that 26% of students felt that the teacher's grammar teaching technique created anxiety while 35% feel it was comfortable. In the same study, some students did not experience an increase of anxiety in error correction while a similar number of students did.

These different perceptions can be also related to a contextual variable: the teacher. Teachers are likely to take the primary role in creating a positive affective

climate in the class. Depending on how teachers implement activities or techniques, they can provide a different classroom climate for the students. Even one of the most possible anxiety provoking activities, error correction, can be turned into an activity that does not produce an unnecessary negative emotion as data has shown above. Comfortable and supportive learning environments do not create negative expectations about not being able to be perfect or not being able to answer a teacher's questions. In turn, learners do not have to come up with any preventative actions. This is the way students can enjoy their learning without raising their levels of anxiety. Teachers' supportive behaviors can create an environment that enhances students' self-esteem and thereby, lowers the level of anxiety (Cohen & Norst, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991c; Samimy & Rardin, 1994).

Although those studies have not explicitly used expectancy-value theory as their theoretical background, they indeed support the argument that negative expectations affect higher levels of anxiety. Anxiety can occur when learners face a negative situation with a belief that they cannot alter the situation and when they do not have a belief that they will be able to prevent the negative situation. In a language learning situation, these expectations seem to be grounded in previous experience, unrealistic beliefs, and classroom environments. However, this picture is incomplete without a consideration of learners' values about the task.

Another key assumption of expectancy-value theory concerns why individuals decide to be involved with a certain event. When individuals place a high value on events and potential outcomes, they induce great valences on such events and outcomes. These valences along with expectations determine primarily what kind of final actions the individuals will take to accomplish the tasks (Feather, 1992). In a foreign language learning situation, the reasons that learners become involved with learning a foreign language seems to predetermine their achievement.

In second language acquisition, Gardner and his colleagues have extensively examined the role of values in language learning within the framework of motivation (Clément et al., 1977; Desrochers & Gardner, 1981; Gardner & Lysynchuk, 1990; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner & Smythe, 1981; Gliksman et al., 1982; Tremblay, Goldberg, & Gardner, 1995). They have categorized two types of motivation orientation: integrative and instrumental. An integrative orientation refers to the enjoyment or being interested in the target language culture as a reason to study a second language. The instrumental orientation, however, indicates that learners learn a language for utilitarian reasons such as advancing in schools or in careers.

Although researchers generally support the argument that the integrative orientation of motivation is an adaptive one in language acquisition, in some

cultures an instrumental orientation plays a dominant role in their achievement. For example, the most powerful reason for Hungarian learners to learn English as a foreign language was to get promising future careers (Dörnyei, 1990). Those learners who had a greater instrumental orientation advanced in the language more than those with an integrative orientation (Dörnyei, 1990; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991). Similarly, Philippine learners tended to be more instrumentally motivated in learning English (Gardner, 1985b). South Korean college learners, more recently, showed a high tendency toward the utilitarian goal orientation in language learning (Kim, 1998). Instrumentally motivated learners, indeed, perform well in some groups of non-western cultures.

Gardner (1985b) has offered two perspectives to explain this controversy. First, motivational intensity plays a more important role than motivational orientations in language learning. That is, how much individuals value language learning is more important than what kind of motivation they have. Second, researchers have developed the idea of "integrative motivation" in second language learning (Gardner, 2001a; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991). Gardner (2001a, 2001b) suggests that "integrative motivation" includes not just reasons for learning a language but also attitudes toward the target language community and learning situations. This more developed idea of motivation encompasses

motivation as a multifaceted variable including valences and attitudes (Lim, 2002).

While studies on values tend to incorporate other variables including attitude in second language acquisition, research in educational psychology has treated values as a distinct variable (i.e., task related values). Eccles and Wigfield (1995) have criticized the lack of studies on the value component and advocated the necessity of the systematic study in the expectancy - value model.

Eccles et al. (1983) have developed a comprehensive model of task values, defining them in terms of four components: intrinsic value, attainment value, extrinsic utility value, and cost. Intrinsic value is the personal interest or enjoyment in performing the activity. As Deci and Ryan (1985) defined it, this component of value indicates the individuals' goal to engage in a task is for its own sake. Attainment value refers to the personal importance of doing well on the task. Utility value is determined by how well a task serves the individuals' future goals such as career goals, pleasing their parents, satisfying social obligations, etc. Cost is defined by the cognitive and emotional effort involved with a task. Individuals may have to give something up in favor of choosing an opportunity to succeed and face negative emotional disturbance such as performance anxiety and fear of failure or success (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002).

These components of values are similar to the construct of motivation suggested by other researchers in the area of educational psychology. Intrinsic value captures a similar construct of intrinsic motivation. This value, as defined by Deci and Ryan (1985) and Harter (1981), is for fulfilling one's pure joy and interest by involvement with a task. Attainment and utility values are tantamount to the construct of extrinsic motivation in the sense that both values represent external reasons for engaging in a task.

It is also related to the construct of mastery goal and performance goal orientation defined by Ames (1992). Mastery goal orientation means that individuals' reasons for engaging in a task are to master tasks and increase their competence. However, performance goal orientation refers to the fact that individuals focus more on outperforming others than on enjoying the learning processes. Individuals seem to be able to keep a mastery goal for a longer time than a performance goal. Therefore, attainment and utility values are considered to be performance oriented goals whereas intrinsic value is more in line with mastery goal (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002).

How are these different types of values related to emotions? Research has shown that values affect emotions as well as behaviors (Dweck, 1986; Dweck & Legget, 1988; Elliot, 1997; Matsumoto & Sanders, 1988; Nicholls, 1983). Learners with extrinsically oriented motivation tend to have negative emotions

such as anxiety and shame. Especially, in a failure situation, performance goal oriented learners seem to easily doubt their ability and become discouraged from further effort. Conversely, intrinsically motivated learners perceive failure as an opportunity to increase ability by putting more effort into the task. This cycle of perceptions and effort lead to positive affect for the learners (Lim, 2003a).

Csikszentmihalyi (1985) has suggested a potential relationship between motivation (i.e., intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) and anxiety in terms of perceived task difficulty. His research on "flow" implies that when individual skills and the degree of task-challenge dimensions are in balance, individuals with high levels of intrinsic motivation do not feel anxiety. Moreover, they feel enjoyment while fully engaging in an activity. For example, good readers can pay complete attention while reading and enjoy the task. They read more and more because a reading task is exciting, pleasurable, and enjoyable for them.

Data from foreign language anxiety studies have shown that students' fear of failure or teachers' constant error correction causes anxiety. As studies based on the expectancy-value theory suggest, it is because the students are probably not intrinsically enjoying what they are learning but rather they are involved with extrinsically motivated goals of foreign language learning (e.g., grades, career enhancement, and rewards). When the need for achievement is performance goal oriented or extrinsic and a low ability perception exists about the task, students

will be more likely to suffer from anxiety. In other words, those who are motivated to enjoy the task itself are more likely to be able to enjoy the process of foreign language learning. They may be less concerned about their mistakes in the language classroom, thus increasing the level of self-confidence (Clément, 1980, 1987).

Putting all together, individuals' perceptions of the consequences and their evaluation of them are crucial in determining the valences that are necessary to produce anxiety. Presumably, an individual who feels that others' views will not have negative effects, or who doesn't care about these mediated outcomes, will not experience anxiety. As Pekrun (1992a) noted, if individuals do not care about consequences, then no anxiety occurs.

Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that high valences (i.e., intrinsic or extrinsic valences) about outcome are related to the level of foreign language anxiety. In this study, it is hypothesized that a high level of valence (i.e., task values) is related to a high level of anxiety. Those who have high task values about outcomes will experience a higher level of foreign language anxiety than those who have lower task values.

2.3.2. Attribution Theory

In the examination of the expectancy of success, theories have evolved regarding how individuals choose a particular behavior from a number of possible alternatives. Rotter (1954) has formulated an expectancy - value theory of behavior from the perspective of social learning. He claims that "the unit of investigation for the study of personality is the interaction of the individual and his meaningful environment" (p.85). That is, individuals' perceptions are not just an individual characteristic but also the product of social interaction. Thus, the expectations that individuals have when they make a decision will reflect their previous learning experiences.

As a determinant of the expectancy of success, Rotter (1966) coined the term “locus of control.” This deals with whether a potential reinforcer can be attained through one's own actions (i.e., internal locus of control) or follows from luck or other uncontrollable external factors (i.e., external locus of control). Perceived locus of control influences the individual's specific goal expectancy in any given situation (Weiner, 1992).

Rotter and his colleagues (cf. Rotter, 1975; Rotter, Chance, & Phares, 1972; Rotter & Hochreich, 1975; Rotter, Seeman, & Liverant, 1962) have investigated the assumption that individuals' locus of control affects behavior. Their findings generally suggest that when individuals believe skills will

determine success (internal control), they increase the perceived probability of future success after a successful experience and decrease it after a failure. Individuals put forth effort depending on the expectancies that they learn from experiences. On the other hand, when individuals believe a situation will be determined by chance (external control), they think success and failure are beyond their control and expectancies change little following success or failure. No persistent effort will be pursued in this case.

Similarly, but more expansively, attribution theory has focused on the expectancy of success and failure in a paradigm of causality (e.g., Heider, 1958; Jones & Davis, 1965; Kelly, 1967; Weiner, 1985, 1986). This theory has been extensively used in the examination of achievement in classrooms. The basic tenant of causal attribution is that learners try to understand the causal determinants of their past successes and failures and decide on their behaviors according to the different types of causal attributions. For example, a foreign language learner of English might pose these questions: "Why did I get a poor grade on the exam/TOEFL?" "Why couldn't I speak English with native English speakers?" or "Why couldn't I master English after years of learning at school?" To answer these questions, the learner uses causal attributions based on his/her previous learning experiences: "I am not very smart," "I didn't study much for the exam," "I never had great English teachers," "My parents never allowed me to

travel to an English speaking country," and so on. This learner then decides future behaviors depending on what causal attributions he/she has made.

Weiner (1986) has suggested three dimensions of causal attributions: locus, stability, and controllability. Locus refers to the source of the cause (i.e., whether the outcome is contingent on an individual's "internal" characteristics or behavior or on some "external" variables). The stability dimension differentiates causes on the basis of their duration. Ability is usually considered relatively stable over time, whereas effort, luck, or mood can vary from moment to moment. Controllability concerns the degree of control an individual has over the cause. People can control how much effort they exert, whereas they presume to have no control over how lucky they are.

Graham (1994) summarizes that most students tend to attribute their success or failure to one of the factors including ability, effort, task difficulty, luck, mood, family background, and help or hindrance from others. Among these, ability and effort are the most dominant perceived causes in western cultures. Both ability and effort are internal factors on the causal dimension. However, on the stability dimension, ability is conceived as stable whereas effort is unstable. In terms of controllability, ability is uncontrollable when students believe they are born with a certain aptitude whereas effort is controllable. On the one hand, when learners believe their failure is ascribed to stable and uncontrollable factors such

as low ability, they are less likely to pursue further effort because they do not believe they have control over the event. On the other hand, when learners ascribe the failure to their lack of effort, they are more likely to pursue further achievement behavior because they believe they can avoid the next failure by putting in more effort. As in the previous example, when the learner thinks "I failed the TOEFL because I had not prepared enough for it," he/she will be more bound to be motivated to study hard than if he/she thinks "I failed because I am too stupid".

Attribution theory (Weiner, 1986) also plays a crucial role in the present study in the sense that causal dimensions play a key role in the emotion process. Each causal dimension (i.e., internal versus external locus of cause) is uniquely related to a set of feelings. For example, when one has ascribed failure to an internal stable element (e.g., ability, personality, self-confidence), concern results (Weiner, 1986). Failure ascribed to the self is hypothesized to result in lower self-esteem more than if failure is externally attributed. Success and failure perceived as due to internal causes, such as personality or effort, respectively raise or lower self-esteem or self-worth (Weiner, 1986). That is, feelings related to self-esteem are influenced by perceived causal properties (dimensions) rather than by an actual cause. Those who ascribe their failure to elements under their own control tend to have negative feelings such as shame or guilt for their failure. Thus, when

this failure is perceived to be due to a lack of effort, their performance may increase in order to avoid the feelings of guilt. In this way, self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982, 1986, 1989) plays an important role in maintaining expectations about outcomes. Those who maintain high self-efficacy still have high expectations about their outcome and put full effort toward performing well in order to avoid feelings like failure.

In the studies of second language acquisition, data, indeed, have shown that self-esteem or self-confidence plays an important role in foreign language anxiety (Clément, 1980, 1987; Young, 1991). Greenberg et al. (1992) have claimed that people with high self-esteem are less likely to be anxious and that threats to self-esteem cause anxiety. Some researchers have noted that foreign language learning could pose a threat to learner's self-esteem because they are not confident presenting themselves in the foreign language (Horwitz et al., 1986; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Price (1991) has also found that many of her anxious students tend to have low self-esteem about their language skills because they think other students have better ability to learn a foreign language. Similarly, Clément's (1980, 1987) model suggests that self-confidence takes a primary role in enhancing learners' willingness to acquire communicative competence. Self-confidence will be increased when learners are in a comfortable environment where they can increase the quality and quantity of the use of the target language.

Then, how have researchers made these presumptions about and connections to foreign language anxiety with the possible role of self-esteem, self-confidence, or self-efficacy? It boils down to the issue of how learners perceive their levels of ability and how they allocate the controllability of what they can do to achieve proficiency in the target language. Do they think their ability is too low to succeed in language learning? Do they believe their effort will pay off? Do they believe they can control their achievement in language learning?

Indeed, some researchers have started to take the variable of perceived competence seriously in second language acquisition. MacIntyre and his associates (MacIntyre, 1994; MacIntyre, et al., 1997; MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2002) have examined willingness to communicate with respect to perceived competence and anxiety and suggested that anxiety diminishes learners' perceptions of their ability and decreases the willingness to communicate. In other words, relationships exist between ability perception and anxiety.

With the understanding that the motivation process is multi-faceted and complex, the recognition of the importance of causal attributions has been emphasized in some studies in language acquisition (cf. Dörnyei, 1990; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Williams & Burden, 1999; Williams, Burden, & Al-Baharna, 2001). However, no direct research has been conducted to examine causal attributions in relation to foreign language anxiety.

However, much data support the evidence that locus of control affects anxiety. In clinical experiments, studies have shown that a lower sense of control was correlated with increased anxiety. For example, Finch and Nelson (1974) examined the relationship between children's anxiety and locus of control. They found that scores on locus of control, measured by the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale (1973), were positively correlated with scores of anxiety, measured by the Children's Manifest Anxiety Scale (Castaneda, McCandless, & Palmermo, 1956). Similarly, experimental data collected from depressed children showed that depressed children exhibited the most external locus of control while non-depressed participants exhibited the least (Nunn, 1988; McCauley, Mitchell, Burke, & Moss, 1988; cited in Barlow, Chorpita, & Turovsky, 1996)

Putting the expectancy - value theory of anxiety (Pekrun, 1992a) and attribution theory (Weiner, 1985, 1986) together, both theories emphasize the individual's perceptions: not only one's perception of oneself but also one's perception of a situation. According to Pekrun (1992a), when both internal and external valences are high, anxiety will result when 1) there is a belief that neither action-control nor action-outcome expectancy exist or 2) individuals do not believe that any action they take will be effective. Therefore, anxiety may decrease if a learner believes that it is possible through internal/self efforts to affect outcomes (e.g., "I can master a foreign language," "My effort will work,"

etc.) because internal effort leads to positive self-efficacy. The learner who makes an internal attribution will be motivated to increase his/her own efforts in order to avoid possible negative outcomes.

However, if the learner makes an external attribution such as "Learning a foreign language itself is a very difficult task," "I can't learn English because I'm in an EFL situation," etc., his/her negative expectancy would likely lead to anxiety. Although the learner makes an effort, he/she does not have confidence that it will work since the attribution is that success is determined by external factors over which he/she has little control. Here, although the learner has a positive belief about action-control there is not a positive belief about action-outcome. Thus, in this case, the level of anxiety is assumed to be high.

Overall, evidence exists that locus of control and attributions are related to anxiety. When learners have a lower sense of control, they tend to increase the level of anxiety. When learners attribute a failure to external causes, they tend to lose a sense of control and, therefore, increase the level of anxiety in their learning tasks. Bond, Leug, and Wan (1982) have also contended that internal attribution is an adaptive type of causal attribution for academic performance. Since debilitating anxiety does not affect positive impact on performance, an internal attribution creates less anxiety and leads to high performance.

Based on the above discussion, it is hypothesized that foreign language learners' perceptions of the outcome are related to a level of foreign language anxiety. Those who attribute their outcomes externally have a higher level of anxiety than those who attribute their consequences of the events internally controllable variables.

2.3.3. Culture and Foreign Language Anxiety

A major point of attribution theory is that perceptions, including those related to locus of control, strongly depend on individual beliefs and perceptions. Faced with the same task, learners may have different perceptions. However, perceptions are affected not only by individual personality but also by the socio-cultural milieu (i.e., teachers, peers, culture, etc).

Anxiety has a socio-cultural nature itself. Anxiety is related not just to individuals' perceptions and appraisals of events but also is constructed by the culture in their community. How a person appraises reality is closely related to the community culture (e.g., classroom climate, social value and expectation, etc) in which the individual is involved. Anxiety is learned, constructed, and shared in a community (Averill, 1984). Therefore, how an individual acquires a certain expectancy and value about an event should be explored in the individual's learning context. Indeed, Mandler and Sarason (1952) proposed that anxiety is

largely determined by the nature of the situation, interacting with personal characteristics of the individual.

Cultures vary in the kind of perceptions/beliefs that they foster. Collective cultures, such as Korea, tend to see the self as interdependent and tend to put a higher value on community or the extended family whereas individualistic cultures, such as the United States, view the self as autonomous and independent and place a higher value on individual's goals or identity (Al-Zahrani & Kaplowitz, 1993). For example, Kim's (1998) research suggests that Korean EFL students tend to emphasize the importance of others' views of them. This suggests that task values are likely to be high because individuals are taught to value others' views of them and to owe loyalty to groups over individuals. Students' performances are considered a judgment of their entire worth as a person and those who perform well are given higher status positions in society.

The relationship between individuals' self-constructs and culture has been extensively studied in the area of social/educational psychology. Markus and Kitayama's (1991) review of culture and self finds that individuals' different self constructs determine the nature of individuals' cognition, emotion, and motivation. The basic notion of self constructs is divided into "independent" and "interdependent" views. The "independent" view of the self holds the belief in the wholeness and uniqueness of each person's configuration of internal attributes

(Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Johnson, 1985; Sampson, 1985, 1988, 1989; Waterman, 1981). Individuals tend to separate from social context and, therefore, they value private, direct, and unique features in the society. On the other hand, the "interdependent" construal of the self emphasizes the self as holistic, collective, allocentric, and connected. Others are an integral part of the situation to which the self is assimilated and participate actively and continuously in the definition of the interdependent self. By so doing, external features (e.g., statuses, roles, relationships) are crucial to the self. The self values the ability to adjust in order to maintain harmony with the social context. An "independent" view of the self dominates in Western cultures whereas an "interdependent" view is mostly pervasive among Asians and Latin-Americans (cf. Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

This view of self is closely related to the cultural paradigm that Triandis and his colleagues (cf. Triandis, 1989, 1995; Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai, & Lucca, 1988; Kim, Triandis, Kâğitçibaşi, Choi, & Yoon, 1994) suggested. Triandis explores culture in terms of two major categories: "collectivism" and "individualism." Triandis (1995) defines the terms, collectivism and individualism, as follows (p.2):

> *Collectivism* may be initially defined as a social pattern consisting of closely linked individuals who see themselves as parts of one or more collectives; are primarily motivated by the norms of, and duties imposed

> by, those collectives; are willing to give priority to the goals of these collectives over their own personal goals; and emphasize their connectedness to members of these collectives. A preliminary definition of *individualism* is a social pattern that consists of loosely linked individuals who view themselves as independent of collectives; are primarily motivated by their own preferences, needs, rights, and the contracts they have established with others; give priority to their personal goals over the goals of others; and emphasize rational analyses of the advantages and disadvantages to associating with others.

That is, "collectivism" is the reflection of an "interdependent" view of the self whereas "individualism" is similar to an "independent" view of the self.

Triandis (1995) has combined the construct of collectivism, individualism, independent, and dependent and suggests four kinds of self: "horizontal collectivism," "vertical collectivism," "horizontal individualism," and "vertical individualism." The horizontal dimension emphasizes a sense of being similar in status whereas vertical accepts inequality and rankings. Presumably, the verticals are more sensitive than the horizontals to cues coming from authorities whereas the horizontals tend to take the reforms as creating competition and weakening ingroup cohesion (Triandis, 1994, 1995).

The cultural (i.e., collectivism, individualism) and individual (i.e., interdependent, independent) variability affects anxiety (Gudykunst, 1998). As discussed above, independent/individualistic individuals form a self-image separated from social context. Self-esteem is high when they are unique and have control. These individuals try to minimize the impact of others' evaluations. This might lead them to have less anxiety than interdependent individuals. On the other hand, for interdependent/collectivistic individuals, status, roles, and relationships are important in their social life and self-esteem comes from the ability that they can be harmonious with others and adjust to various situations. These individuals have a great concern for others and are sensitive to others' evaluations. Thus, they are assumed to be easily susceptible to anxiety. Singelis and Sharkey (1995) have confirmed these hypotheses in their study that found that self-construal and embarrassability are related in similar ways within different ethnocultural groups.

Researchers have concluded that collectivists tend to have a higher level of extrinsic value than individualists (Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Singelis & Sharkey, 1995). One can assume that some of the findings related to motivation orientation may reflect the same tendency in second language learning. The strong tendency of instrumental/utilitarian motivation exists in some eastern Asian countries (e.g., South Korea, Hungary, the Philippines). Indeed, several studies have shown that the strength of achievement motivation, which is pervasive in

many Asian cultures, is positively correlated with familism and filial piety (Bond, 1986, 1996a, 1996b; Yang, 1996; Yu, 1974; Yu, 1996). Motivation is socially oriented rather than individually oriented. Thus, individuals persevere to fulfill the expectations of significant others, typically the family (Bond, 1986) and accomplishing a goal is fulfilling their duties within the family.

The weight of dimensions of causal attribution varies across cultures, as does the importance of certain emotions and values. Research has shown that Western cultures tend to attribute success to internal causes and failure to some contextual or external cause (cf. Bradley, 1978; Miller & Ross, 1975; Ross & Fletcher, 1985; Zuckerman, 1978). On the other hand, East Asian cultures do not exhibit this tendency (cf. Chiu, 1988; Hui, 1982; Kashima & Triandis, 1986). Individualists tend to attribute events to internal individual causes more frequently than collectivists, who tend to attribute them to external causes (Newman, 1993). That is, there seems to be a tendency for causes of outcomes to vary depending on particular cultural constructs (Bond, Leung, & Wan, 1982; Crittenden, 1996). Since attributions appear related to anxiety, it is reasonable to assume that learners' cultural constructs may also be related to anxiety.

In the studies of foreign language acquisition, the importance of socio-cultural impacts has been acknowledged and included in several models of language learning (Gardner, 1985b; Schumann, 1978). Although no research, per

se, deals with the cultural constructs in terms of examining foreign language anxiety, researchers have implied that contextual factors seem to play an important role in triggering anxiety as well as individual factors. Results from some studies support the argument that a possible disposition for foreign language anxiety exists in some cultural groups. Relatively high foreign language anxiety levels have been found among Korean (Kim, 2000; Truitt, 1995) and Taiwanese EFL learners (Cheng, 1998).

Therefore, the current study is designed to examine the relationship between cultural constructs and foreign language anxiety. It is hypothesized that those who come from collectivist societies will have a higher level of foreign language anxiety than those from individualist societies because extrinsic task values are believed to be higher in collectivist cultures.

2.4. Weaving It all Together and Generating Hypotheses

Theories suggest that anxiety affects learning. Early experimentalists have shown that a little bit of anxiety enhances learning while too much debilitates performance. Since no exact agreement exists on the point where the learning curve goes down, each individual probably needs to explore his/her own anxiety curves in each task. However, in terms of cognitive effects, theorists generally agree that the debilitating anxiety has detrimental effects on attention, retention,

and retrieval of knowledge. Moreover, anxiety seems to affect some learning tasks (e.g., incidental learning, problem-solving tasks, communication skills, cognitive strategy use in processing information).

In second/foreign language acquisition, language researchers also have found similar effects regarding anxiety in language learning and performance. Since researchers have agreed to define foreign language anxiety as a situation-specific anxiety that occurs distinctively in language learning situations, research has consistently shown that anxiety negatively affects performance including exams, oral presentations, interviews, etc.

One very important aspect of language learning is that language learning involves not just the acquisition of forms of a language but also functions and values that are rooted in the target language culture. Many learners, especially adult language learners who have developed different functional values from a target language culture, seem to go through severe emotional trauma to master a foreign language. Such second/foreign language theories as the acculturation model and socio-educational model tap into the role of anxiety in a broad socio-cultural aspect of language learning and view anxiety as a variable related to language proficiency.

In an effort to examine foreign language anxiety, researchers have explored several other variables. Individual factors including self-perceptions,

self-confidence, and mis/beliefs play an important role in raising anxiety. Previous language learning experiences also seem to affect learners' beliefs and self-confidence and, thereby, affect levels of foreign language anxiety. Some contextual variables such as teachers' instructional activities and techniques create a classroom atmosphere that, in turn, affects students' levels of foreign language anxiety. Results from some studies also support a possible disposition of foreign language anxiety in some cultural groups.

Although much research has been conducted to examine the effects of foreign language anxiety, no theoretical models have been used systematically to study foreign language anxiety, except Tobias' cognitive processing model used by MacIntyre and Gardner (cf. 1994a, 1994b). Thus, a theoretical model that can integrate ostensibly related variables to language anxiety is necessary to further discussions in foreign language anxiety.

One of the most important variables in foreign language anxiety is perception. What does the learner perceive about his/her ability? What kind of expectations does the learner have about his/her language learning? What kind of previous learning experiences does the learner have? How does the learner perceive the importance of their language learning? Does the learner believe he/she has control over the outcome of foreign language learning?

These issues can be embraced in the models of expectancy-value theory of anxiety (Pekrun, 1992a) and attribution theory (Weiner, 1986). Although Weiner (1986) and Pekrun (1992a) are talking about different empirical foci, clearly there is a relationship between the two. Both deal with learner perceptions of the situation rather than "actual realities". Unless a learner believes the outcome is under his/her own control (Weiner), there is no particular belief that individual action will produce required results (Pekrun). Therefore, we can expect that anxiety should be relatively low when learners perceive an internal locus of control.

According to Pekrun (1992a), given that individuals have a desire to avoid potential negative outcomes (high valence situations) individuals must believe they can control events in order to relieve anxiety. Therefore, individuals who are self-confident and who believe they can control outcome events should show less anxiety. This perspective might more fully explain the results, for example, between anxiety and achievement.

If learners believe they have control over a situation, then they are more likely to take actions. Practically, this means that if learners believe their actions will result in successful second language learning, then they will study more, practice more and presumably, learn more. On the other hand, students who don't believe they can control outcomes will be less likely to pursue actions. These

students will, presumably, study less, practice less and learn less. These students may experience anxiety but it is not the anxiety, per se, that causes the failure in learning. It is the perceptions/beliefs related to the ability to take effective actions that determine both the likelihood of anxiety and the failure to take action.

One potential hypothesis for linking theories of motivation and anxiety focuses on the relationship between learner values regarding the outcome of foreign language learning and levels of anxiety. In this cognitive process, individual locus of control, as a mediating variable, plays a crucial role because it affects the level of self-efficacy and eventually influences the level of anxiety. That is, learners who attribute the cause of the outcome to internally controllable variables tend to have a high level of self-efficacy while those who attribute success/failure to externally controlled factors seem to have low levels of self-efficacy. Anxiety results from high task values, individually uncontrolled events, and/or a low level of self-efficacy.

Therefore, two hypotheses will be tested in this study. First, those individuals who have high task values about outcomes will experience a higher level of foreign language anxiety than those who have lower task values. Second, those who attribute the causes of outcomes externally will have a higher level of anxiety than those who attribute causes to internally controllable variables.

Another important factor in studying perceptions is the influence of socio cultural aspects. Whether individuals want to or not, they have absorbed social values, norms, and attitudes from the culture in which they live. Without examining these possible cultural characteristics, we can never understand individuals holistically. The important point here concerns whether there are any cultural characteristics that can lead to the differences in foreign language anxiety. Thus, studies in the self and cultural constructs in social psychology provide rationale for the discussion. The collectivists' tendency to value others' opinions highly seems to create more socially and extrinsically oriented motivation than occurs in more individualistic cultures which, in turn, may lead learners in collectivist groups to experience raised levels of foreign language anxiety because of the duty or desire that they need to satisfy socially created goals.

More importantly, the differences in attributional tendencies among different cultures may affect levels of foreign language anxiety. Research has shown that when individuals have a sense of controllability about the outcome of an event, they have a clearer expectation about their success or failure of the event. When learners believe that they can achieve a goal by putting in effort, they can increase their self-confidence, which will reduce levels of anxiety.

EFL learners who do not have much contact with native English speakers may blame their unsuccessful English language learning experience on inadequate

environments. Learners may also blame their failure to achieve communicative competence on the school system. Many of these factors are external ones over which learners do not have much control. Many EFL learners who are, in fact, in these environments may have higher levels of anxiety than others because they are prone to attribute their failure to external factors and their effort never pays off.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that those learners with collectivist tendencies will experience a higher level of foreign language anxiety than those with individualist characteristics. The rationale is that collectivistic individuals tend to have higher extrinsic task values and make more external attribution than individualistic individuals.

In sum, to provide a fuller understanding of anxiety and second/foreign language acquisition, this study proposes to focus on how foreign language anxiety is created by specifically examining the effects of cultural orientation on attribution tendencies. Further, the nature of perceptions and attributions regarding the success or failure of an outcome will be examined in terms of foreign language anxiety and performance. Finally, the importance of outcomes for foreign language learners will be included. Such an approach should serve to link several theoretical approaches in order to enhance our understanding of the

relationship between foreign language anxiety and second/foreign language acquisition.

CHAPTER 3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The present study was designed to examine the possible relationships among foreign language anxiety, the value of foreign language learning to individuals (task values), attributions, and cultural constructs. A survey design was used to test the hypotheses. A number of survey instruments were included for the study. The purpose of the design was to correlate the scores of the foreign language use anxiety scale with the scores for task values, attributions, and cultural constructs, as well as measure the interrelationship among independent variables (i.e., task values, attributions, and cultural constructs). This chapter describes the participants, sampling, instruments, data collection procedures, and scoring methods used to test the hypotheses.

3.1. PARTICIPANTS

A sample was recruited from the participants of the workshop for the International Teaching Assistants or Assistant Instructors (hereafter referred to as ITAs) at the University of Texas at Austin (hereafter referred to as UT) from August 22 to 25, 2001. The Graduate School at UT requires that international students who intend to be a TA or AI attend this workshop before getting an ITA certificate. This certificate allows ITAs to have student contact as part of their

duties. Approximately 370 ITAs attended this ITA Teaching Workshop. A total of 226 participants voluntarily returned the questionnaire.

There are several reasons that ITAs were recruited. First, ITAs represent a relatively homogeneous group with respect to English proficiency. They have to reach a certain level on the required exams (TOEFL and the English Language Proficiency Assessment). They are thus assumed to be relatively advanced adult foreign language learners. Second, they are a group of people from diverse countries which can provide the necessary variation in cultural constructs for this study. Third, it is a group of people who should have high values regarding mastering the target language. The homogeneity of the participants is important for correlation research studies because relationships between variables might be obscured by the presence of participants who differ widely from each other (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 2003). Therefore, ITAs, more than any other single group, exhibit the conditions necessary to examine the hypotheses.

3.2. SAMPLING

The present study was exploratory and proposed to examine the possible relationships among foreign language anxiety, attributions, and cultural constructs. Therefore, a nonprobability sampling process was used. Although it sacrifices generalizability of the results for convenience in recruiting available

participants, it can meet the research goal to see if the prevalent relationship between attributions and anxiety in social psychology exists in the field of second language acquisition. Based on the results, this area of study can be extended to larger studies with a random sampling process.

3.3. INSTRUMENTS

As Fowler (1993) and Kerlinger (1986) address advantages of surveys to measure intangibles such as one's attitudes, beliefs, expectations, and values, surveys will be used to assess participants' attributions and foreign language anxiety. The written questionnaire form was used in order to reveal the relationship among variables. Below are the scales that were used to measure the variables. These scales were originally written in English and were not translated into each participant's target languages because the participants were assumed to have a high enough level of English language proficiency to get certified as an ITA, and translating them into such a large number of languages was impractical.

The major variables to be examined in the proposed research are foreign language anxiety, the value of foreign language learning to individuals (task values), locus of control, attribution, and cultural constructs. The following sections show how those variables were operationalized.

3.3.1. Foreign Language Anxiety

Feelings of anxiety and concern in using English in various contexts were measured by a modified version of the "French Use Anxiety" scale. Gardner's (1985a) "French use anxiety (8 items)" scale was modified to measure "English use anxiety" (i.e., the word "French" will be restated as "English"; Appendix E). The reliability of the scale was reported in the study of French use anxiety among university students. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991b) reported 0.85 (n = 95) based on Cronbach's alpha.

Two more items (items 9 and 10) were added to measure feelings of concerns in using English in the classroom as a TA. Although the original scale uses 6-point Likert-type scales which range from "agree" to disagree," it is extended to 7-point Likert-scale from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The purpose of this extension was to measure the level of anxiety more delicately and to make it consistent with other scales in Questionnaire 1. The possible scores range from 10 to 70. A score of 10 indicates the lowest level of anxiety whereas a score of 70 is the highest score to show anxiety. Scores of the items 1, 3, 6, 7, and 10 (Appendix E) were reverse-scored.

This scale was used in the perspective that foreign language anxiety would be involved with various speaking situations and measuring anxiety in those contexts were needed to be measured for the study. Pervious studies have shown

that a context relevant measure, such as French Use Anxiety, is more important in language learning than measuring trait anxiety (Gardner, 1985b; Gardner et al., 1987; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997). Another instrument that has been used pervasively to measure foreign language anxiety is the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz et al., 1986; Horwitz, 1986). This scale measures student levels of anxiety in the classroom learning environment. However, the present study focuses on examining what the level of anxiety is when learners use English in various contexts and not when they learn English in class. Thus, foreign language anxiety was measured using the English Use Anxiety scale which is more general.

3.3.2. Perceived Locus of Control and Attribution

Attributions for the causes of outcome success and failure were measured by two instruments. First, Rotter's (1966) "Internal-External Locus of Control Scale" (I-E scale) was used. This instrument has measured a generalized expectancy and commonly used for cross-cultural personality tests in psychology (Rotter, 1966, 1990). A second instrument was included in order to measure the individuals' belief about language learning specific situations. Weiner's (1986, 2000) subtle dimensions on attribution were utilized (i.e., effort, ability, task difficulty, luck) in the questions created for the present study.

Many studies have shown the reliability and validity of the I-E scale. The scale has reasonably stable internal consistency (ranging from .65 to .79, Franklin, 1963; Rotter, 1966), and test-retest reliability shows a satisfactory level (ranging from .49 to .83, Rotter, 1966). Convergent validity is satisfactory with other methods of assessing the same variables, such as questionnaires, Likert scales, interview assessments, and ratings from a story-completion technique (Rotter, 1966). Discriminant validity is indicated by the low relationships with such variables as intelligence (ranging from -.01 to .03, Strickland, 1962, Cardi, 1962, Ladwig, 1963, Rotter, 1966) and social desirability (ranging from -.07 to -.35, Ladwig, 1963; Schwarz, 1963; Strickland, 1962; Watt, 1962; Rotter, 1966). Construct validity shows that the scores of the I-E scale predict differences in behavior (Rotter, 1966).

Rotter's (1966) I-E scale was shortened for the present study (Appendix F items from 1 to 15). The scale originally consisted of 29 items. Six filler items were eliminated (e.g., "There are certain people who are just no good," "There is some good in everybody"). Two items that were pointed out as weak items by Collins (1974) were removed (i.e., "No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you," "People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others"). Six more items related to political views of the world were removed from the study (e.g., "As far as world affairs are concerned, most

of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control," "By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events"). Those items may be debatable for various nationality groups and did not seem to provide much information for the purpose of the present study. Therefore, 15 items of the I-E scale were used.

Each item has a pair of statements that represent internal and external locus of control. Participants were asked to choose one statement from each pair which they more strongly believed to be the case as far as they were concerned. External locus of control items measure the belief that the result of the action is due to luck, chance, fate, or under the control of powerful others whereas internal locus of control items measure whether the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his/her own behavior or relatively permanent characteristics (Rotter, 1966). In Appendix F, the underline preceding the external choice in every item is italicized for reference.

For scoring, frequencies of internal and external locus of control were counted. If the answer takes more than half portion of the whole answer (15), it counts as that type. For example, an individual who had scored 51% or more of the choices as internal was assigned "internal locus of control" and those who had less than 50% were determined to have an "external locus of control."

Three items were created to measure individuals' perceptions of the cause attributed to English language learning (Appendix G). Based on Weiner's attribution theory (1986, 2000), these perceptions examined with the respect to internal and external factors: ability, effort, task difficulty, and luck. Three major language learning tasks were focused on: communicative competence, grades, and TOEFL scores. In measuring participants' belief on the cause of high communicative competency in English, effort was measured by such items as a number of hours of studying, doing extra homework, and trying to talk with native speakers. Ability was measured with the construct of aptitude (i.e., natural aptitude for languages). Luck was measured in terms of having a good teacher, opportunities to encounter native English speakers. Task difficulty was measured by grading standards and performance standards for passing a class.

In measuring participants' beliefs about the cause of getting a good TOEFL score, effort was counted as taking a TOEFL class and hours of studying. Ability refers to natural aptitude for taking tests. Luck refers to test conditions such as having good computers, speakers, and physical conditions, and task difficulty refers to which version of test that they got.

In measuring participants' perceptions of the cause of getting good grades in English classes, effort was measured in terms of the number of hours of studying, and doing extra homework. Ability was measured in terms of one's

natural aptitude for languages. Luck was measured as having a good teacher. Task difficulty was measured by teacher's grading standards and performance standards necessary to pass a class.

Each question had a blank section so that participants could write other opinions. Answers were categorized into one of the groups (i.e., ability, effort, task difficulty, luck, or others). Each question added to 100%. The face validity of the categories was examined by committee members (Dr. Horwiz, Dr. Wicker, Dr, Schallert, and Dr. Svinicki).

Scores of each item were totaled accordingly to fit each category (i.e., ability, effort, task difficulty, luck) for the three different learning tasks. Then, the scores for each category were added and divided by three to represent total scores of effort, ability, task difficulty, and luck.

3.3.3. Task Values

Based on research about task values (Eccles & Wigfield, 1995; Feather, 1988), intrinsic value, attainment value (importance), and extrinsic value were measured for the study. Intrinsic or interest value is defined as the enjoyment or pleasure one gets from engaging in an activity (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Eccles, 1987; Eccles & Wigfield, 1995; Parsons & Goff, 1980). Attainment value is one's perceived importance of doing well on a task (Crandall, 1969; Eccles & Wigfield,

1995). Extrinsic value is one's utility and instrumental values to achieve various goals (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Eccles & Wigfield, 1995). Confirmatory factor analysis conducted by Eccles and Wigfield (1995) have shown that achievement-related beliefs consist of interest, perceived importance, and perceived utility in terms of task values.

Seven questions using a 7 point Likert response scale were developed to measure participants' values regarding language learning (Appendix I). Two items were used to measure intrinsic value about how much interest participants had in learning English (i.e., (1) In general, I found studying English to be…, (2) Compared to my other school subjects, English was…). Three items related to the participants' career, TA/AI work to English learning, and others' pressure for learning English were used to measure the degree of attainment value (i.e., (3) How important do you think English is for the occupational career you propose to follow, (4) How important do you think English is for doing your teaching assistant or assistant instructor's job, and (5) I am learning English because others (i.e., parents, peers) say it is important to speak English well) by using 7 Likert responses ranging from Not Important At All or Absolutely Not to Very Important or Absolutely. Extrinsic value was measured by using two items asking about utility of English for the participants' career (i.e., (6) How useful is learning English for what you want to do after you graduate and go to work? (7) After I

graduate and get a job in my country, I don't anticipate having to use English for work) by using 7 Likert Scale responses ranging from Not Very Useful or Strongly Agree to Very Useful or Strongly Disagree. The face validity of the categories was examined by committee members (Dr. Horwiz, Dr. Wicker, Dr, Schallert, and Dr. Svinicki).

Items were summed up to get a total score for the task values. Item 2 (Appendix I) was inverted to be added into the total. Each category totaled to get scores of each value. Since each category has different numbers of the items, the scores of each value were divided by numbers of the items.

3.3.4. Cultural Constructs

Cultural constructs have been examined in the construct of individualism and collectivism for more than two decades in cross-cultural psychology (Bond & Smith, 1996; Kâğitçibaşi & Berry, 1989; Triandis, 1989; Triandis & Brislin, 1980; Triandis, Chen, & Chan, 1998). The ways of measuring the cultural constructs have been developed and modified in the studies of cross-cultural psychology. Although convergence of more than 20 different methods has been found modestly satisfactory (Singelis, Triandis, Bhawuk, & Gelfand, 1995), none of the methods have proven totally satisfactory. One of the problems has been that

respondents are biased toward collectivist, depending on the social desirability pressures in their particular society (Triandis et al., 1998).

Recently, a new method that uses scenarios in multiple-choice tests was suggested by a group of social psychologists. According to Triandis et al. (1998), this scenario approach with a multiple-choice format has several advantages. First, it is not easy for participants to consider the social desirability of all four elements of cultural constructs (i.e., horizontal individualism, vertical individualism, horizontal collectivism, and vertical collectivism). Second, it is less likely that participants consider 64 (16 scenarios) sources of social desirability while answering the questions. Third, the scenarios used for the questions sampled situations that could be widely found among university students. For those reasons, this recent scenario type questions used in the present study to examine the individual's propensity toward specific cultural constructs.

Scenarios created by Triandis et al. (1998) were used for the study. They consisted of social (two items), political (two items), economic (three items), philosophical (self-perceptions) (four items), and aesthetic (three items) content. This method shows a respectable convergent validity with the attitude item method presented by Singelis et al. (1995) (r = .41 (horizontal collectivism), .51 (vertical individualism), .29 (vertical collectivism), .11 (horizontal individualism), n = 304, $p < .05$) (Triandis et al., 1998; Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). It shows a

reasonable reliability for this method (Spearman rank order correlation = .80, n = 304, $p < .05$) (Triandis et al., 1998).

The questions consisted of 16 scenarios with four options from which to choose. Each response represents one of the four cultural types: horizontal individualism, horizontal collectivism, vertical individualism, and vertical collectivism. For research purposes, participants were asked to mark "1" for the most "right" and "2" for "appropriate for them" (Appendix I).

Frequencies of each answer were calculated for scoring. Each individual was assigned to the category that had the most frequent first choice. When the scores were tied for two categories, the data were counted as missing data.

3.3.5. Demographic Questionnaire

A demographic questionnaire was designed to investigate specific information about the participants: age, gender, major, native country, native language, TA appointment, TOEFL scores, the English oral proficiency assessment scores, use of English, years of studying English, years of living in English speaking countries, and self-rated proficiency level. This information was used to examine the relationships between/among demographic variables and other major variables such as anxiety, task values, and attributions (Appendices H and J).

3.4. DATA COLLECTION

This section covers information about strategies taken to improve the response rates, organization of the question sequences, and procedures for gaining assess to the population and data collection for the present study. It is provided to allow replication of the study for further study and understand the nature of the population sampled.

3.4.1. Improving the Rate of Volunteering

In order to increase the rate of volunteering for the study (cf. Gall, Borg, & Gall, 2003), several strategies were implemented. First, the researcher tried to create a nonthreatening environment for participants in the study. It was clearly emphasized that filling out the questionnaires was voluntary when the questionnaires were distributed. Volunteers were asked to answer the questionnaires and return them anytime they were able to during the workshop. Second, the theoretical and practical importance of the study was announced. A short version and a long version of the cover letters (Appendices B, C) were distributed to the participants. The short version was printed on colored paper (i.e., yellow and green) to attract participants' attention and was created to deliver the purpose of the study effectively. An announcement about the importance of

participation was made during the workshop. This announcement was made to emphasize that volunteering was a normal thing to do. Third, a prize worth $75 for participation was offered as a token of gratitude. In order to make the appeal for volunteers as interesting as possible, a form of lottery was used. From those who filled out the questionnaires and returned the lottery tickets, one participant was randomly chosen for the award of this prize. This dollar amount was meant to encourage sufficient participation and so provide a valid and reliable sample. It was not such a large amount as to overly influence someone to participate if they really did not wish to.

Lastly, but most importantly, the data had to be collected during the fall ITA workshop period because it is the workshop that traditionally has the largest number of attendees among all the workshops of the year. It was crucial to recruit volunteers during this workshop in order to increase the respondents' rate and secure a large enough sample size for a reliable and valid sample.

3.4.2. Question Sequence

Several techniques for organizing questions were used in order to capture the respondent's interest and motivate completion. First, the questionnaire was divided into two parts (Questionnaires 1 and 2) because there was a concern that if the questionnaire was too long (more than 30 minutes), it would distract the

respondent's attention and demotivate completion. Total estimated time for completion was about 20-30 minutes. Moreover, because the workshop schedule was very tight and the attendees did not have much time for a break, it seemed to be a reasonable idea to divide questionnaires into two sessions to make respondents feel less burdened by time.

Second, in terms of the organization of the overall questionnaire sequence, the questionnaire started with easy and less challenging questions such as feeling about learning English. Task value items should show clear relevance to the stated study purpose so that the respondents do not feel intimidated to answer the questions and could easily continue to answer the questions. Therefore, background items were put at the end of the questionnaires. Studies have shown that at that time the respondents are ordinarily more willing to give personal information (Dillman, 1978; Judd, Smith, & Kidder, 1991).

Third, the items were categorized topically. Studies have shown that respondents are frequently confused and angered if questions skip around from topic to topic (Judd et al., 1991). By keeping topics coherent and organizing topics in the order of feelings (task value items), emotions (anxiety items), locus of control (general), and attribution (language specific situations), it was hoped that the respondents' comprehension and ability to answer the questions were

facilitated and the respondents could see that they were all linked to the overall purpose of the study.

Fourth, the "funnel" principle was applied to organize questions within a topic area: general questions come first, followed by increasingly specific and detailed questions, with the sequence "funneling down" (Judd et al., 1991). General feelings were asked first about English learning and specific feelings related to career were asked later for the topic of task values. For anxiety, items related to anxiety in general situations were asked before the items related to anxiety in teaching situations. Attribution orientations in language learning specific tasks were followed by the general items of locus of control. This sequence should have several points. The more general questions are most easily justified in terms of their relevance to the study purpose. They then serve as a natural lead in to more specific questions. The general-to-specific sequence should produce less bias than the reverse (Judd et al., 1991). Therefore, the respondents would be less intimidated to give their personal information in the demographic questions.

Fifth, the researcher tried to have clear and meaningful transitions between topics that point out the relevance of the new topic to the study purpose. For example, the following transition sentence was provided to move from task values to the anxiety topic: "You have answered a number of questions about how you

feel about learning English. The following statements apply to how you feel about English use in daily life. Indicate how well these statements apply to you by circling the number that best describes your opinion" (Appendix E). These transition sentences were meant to smooth the flow of a questionnaire, thereby easing the respondents' task and motivating them to continue by showing the inquiry to be meaningful and relevant.

The respondent's last four digits of either their social security number or their student identification number were requested on both questionnaires so as to allow matching of Questionnaires 1 and 2. This purpose was indicated and confidentiality of the answers was promised in each questionnaire. Five of the demographic questions (i.e., age, sex, major, native country, and native language) were duplicated for Questionnaire 2 for securing the respondent's identification.

By implementing some of the techniques that previous research have shown to the present survey research, it was hoped that the participants would be able to answer the questions smoothly and be interested in finishing the questionnaires.

3.4.3. Data Collection Procedure

To gain access to the participants of the workshop, approval from the Director of the International Teaching Assistants program was gained verbally.

Cautions not to interrupt the programs of the workshop and no connection between the program and the present study were mentioned.

The data for this study were collected during the ITA Teaching Workshop in August, 2001. The workshop was required for those who had received the Oral English Proficiency Assessment scores of 230 or above. For the four day period of the workshop (mostly from 8:30 a.m. to 1:00 p.m.), the participants received Questionnaire 1 on the first day and Questionnaire 2 on the second day before the workshop started and asked to participate in the study voluntarily. Questionnaire 1 consisted of the cover letter (Appendix B), the consent form (Appendix A), and items measuring task values (Appendix D), foreign language use anxiety (Appendix E), locus of control (Appendix F), attributions (Appendix G), and long version of demographic questions (Appendix H). For Questionnaire 2, 16 items to measure the cultural constructs (Appendix I) and a short form of demographic questions (Appendix J) were included as well as the cover letter (Appendix C) and the "lottery" ticket (Appendix C). Five background questions were asked in Questionnaire 2 in order to match Questionnaires 1 and 2 just in case a participant inadvertently missed to fill out his or her identification number.

After reading the cover letter and if they decided to participate in the study, they were asked to sign and keep the consent form attached in Questionnaire 1 and to fill out the questionnaire. After completing the

questionnaire, they were asked to put it into designated yellow boxes located around the entrances or return them to the researcher. Participants filled out the questionnaire on their own time at a place of their choice. Questionnaire 1 consisted of 49 items and was assumed to take about 15-20 minutes. The 21 items on Questionnaire 2 were estimated to take about 5-10 minutes.

Participants were also able to fill out a "lottery" ticket attached to Questionnaire 2 cover letter and were eligible to win $75. This prize was randomly drawn from the "lottery" box and one person, among those who completed and returned both questionnaires by the last day of the workshop, was chosen. This reward idea was suggested by Dr. Wicker and was agreed upon by three of the present committee members. Information about this lottery winning was displayed on the transparencies (Appendix K) between 8:00 a.m. to 9:00 a.m. for the three days of the workshop while the researcher was distributing the questionnaires. The winner was notified by email three days after the workshop and the money was awarded.

On the third day of the workshop, after Questionnaires 1 and 2 were distributed, a short announcement was made to increase the response rate by helping respondents to understand the purpose of the study. The researcher tried to remind them of the last chance to participate on the fourth day through face-to-face interaction.

After collecting the data, the researcher sorted Questionnaires 1 and 2 by matching their identification numbers for the data analysis. Where possible, those results were used in the analyses.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

This chapter examines the hypotheses outlined previously. The data were analyzed with SPSS 10.0 for Windows. Unless otherwise stated, an alpha level of 0.05 was used as the standard for determining significance. If respondents failed to answer items or failed to follow directions while answering, those items were coded as "missing data." Such respondents were then excluded from analyses involving such missing data. This accounts for the inconsistent *n* across all tests.

4.1. EXPLORATORY DATA ANALYSES

4.1.1. Demographics

A total of 226 International Teaching Assistants or Assistant Instructors (hereafter referred to as ITAs) participated in the study. Two participants were excluded from the data analysis because one of them did not complete Questionnaire 1 and failed to turn in Questionnaire 2. The second gave the same answer for every question. Therefore, there were 224 total usable responses.

Their ages ranged from 20 to 38 and 177 (78.9%) of the participants fell in the age range between 21 and 28. One hundred fifty four (68.8%) were males and 70 (31.3%) were females. The majority of the participants were majoring in the fields of engineering (*n* = 106, 47.3%), natural/physical sciences (*n* = 57, 25.4%),

and social sciences (*n* = 24, 10.7%). The participants came from 32 different countries: 99 (44.2%) from India, 31 (13.8%) from Republic of Korea (hereafter Korea), 19 (8.5%) from People's Republic of China (hereafter China), 12 (5.4%) from Mexico, and 63 (28.1%) from a variety of other countries. If we group them into geographical regions, 103 (46%) participants came from India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Iran, 68 (30.4%) participants came from other Asian countries, 20 (8.9%) came from North and South America, 32 (14.3%) came from Europe, and one person came from Africa. One hundred seventy two (78.9%) of the participants had either a teaching assistantship (*n* = 152, 67.9%), research assistantship (17, 7.8%), or assistant instructorship (*n* = 3, 1.3%) for the coming semester. The rest of them did not know at that time whether or not they had an assistantship and probably hoped that attending the workshop would help them secure a position. The descriptive tables of the above results are attached in Appendix L.

4.1.2. English Language Background[1]

Participants' English language proficiency levels were checked with a variety of different data sources. The purpose of using multiple sources was to provide as accurate picture as possible of their English proficiency. For example, a Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) score may reflect not only

English ability but also test taking skills. A performance score at one point in time reflects aspects other than language ability. By using multiple measures, it was hoped that such extraneous effects might be minimized. First, the most recent scores of the TOEFL were self-reported. The majority of the ITAs scored above 600 on the TOEFL (86.2%). Since most of the graduate departments at the University require high TOEFL scores for admission, it was assumed that ITAs' achievement on TOEFL would be high. All participants had taken their TOEFL tests between 1994 and 2001, and most scores were obtained between 1997 and 2001 (n = 201, 89.8%). Rankings in English classes were self-reported as a second measure of English language proficiency. More than half of the participants responded that their English course grades were in the top 10% of their class in their home country and a majority rated their English achievement in English courses as above average (88.8%). That is, most participants were high achievers in English tests.

However, when they were asked to rate their ability to speak English, 44 (19.6%) participants answered that they were average or lower than average level; 60 (26.8%) participants rated their English speaking proficiency a little above average. Only 114 (50.9%) of the participants perceived their level of English speaking proficiency to be high. Although a majority of respondents perceived their English speaking abilities to be above average to high (77.7%), perceived

[1] The descriptive tables of all of the results are attached in Appendix M.

ability was not rated as high as their self-reported tests scores (i.e., TOEFL and English course grades).

Another measure of English proficiency was given by the International TA/AI English oral proficiency assessment. More than half of the participants (*n* = 155, 69.2%) had passed the assessment and officially qualified to be an ITA with possible contact with students at the University of Texas at Austin. However, 32 (14.3%) had conditionally passed.

The degree of the target language use by the participants was determined by six questions with an open question format (Appendix H, items 9 to 12). The target language can be used in a variety of situations. To determine the breadth and extent of language use, multiple questions were incorporated. The items asked about the degree of English use in a day, with whom they spoke, years spent in English speaking countries, educational background in the United States, years spent at a school in the United States, and years of studying English.

Many participants (*n* = 172, 76.8%) answered that they used English everyday. They used English mostly with friends (*n* = 139, 62.1%), faculty members (*n* = 121, 54%), and/or colleagues (*n* = 117, 52.2%) at the university. Only 55 (24.6%) participants answered that they used English with family members and 86 (38.4%) participants used English with others including native

speakers. However, a surprisingly high number, 24.2%, indicated they did not use English in their everyday lives.

With respect to the amount of time spent in the United States, 143 (68.4%) participants answered that they had been in the States less than one year. Ninety-six (45.9%) of them had not even been in the States a month. Of those who had been in the U.S. more than a year, most had been here between one and four years. Some had been here longer and one had been in the U.S. for 30 years.

One hundred sixty (71.4%) participants had not yet been educated in a formal school environment in the United States (e.g., high school, college, graduate school). Among those who answered that they had studied in the United States, most of them (n = 39, 91.7%) had been in a formal school environment for less than two years.

The years they had spent studying English ranged from one month to 30 years. Except for 16 (7.1%) of the participants who had studied English for one to five years, most participants had been studying between six to 20 years (n = 169, 81.2%). About eleven percent of the participants (n = 23) had been studying English for 21 to 30 years.

In sum, most participants achieved fairly high TOEFL scores. Most participants thought their performances in English course scores at school had been high. Their perceived ability at English speaking proficiency, however, was

lower than the assessment of actual exam scores might indicate. Many participants had opportunities to speak English daily. A majority of the participants had studied English for more than five years.

4.2. Relationships between Task Values and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

The first research question concerns the relationship between the values assigned to foreign language learning and foreign language use anxiety (FLUA). Specifically, this research posed the following hypothesis:

[1] There is a positive relationship between task values and foreign language use anxiety.

H_o: $r_{yx} = 0$

In this study, the dependent variable, FLUA was measured using a seven-item, 7-point Likert scale based on the scale developed by Gardner (1985a). Task values, the independent variable, were measured using a modified seven-item, 7-point Likert scale developed by Eccles and Wigfield (1995) and Brophy (1999a, 1999b). FLUA scores had a potential range from 10 to 70. The potential range for task values was from 7 to 49.

Both of the variables were measured using a Likert scale. Conventionally, such scales are generally accepted as being interval in nature. Therefore, it is

possible to use parametric statistics to check the hypothesis. Since the hypothesis specified that there is a positive relationship between the variables, a correlational analysis, is an appropriate procedure to examine this hypothesis.

Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient was used to test the hypothesis. This statistic requires interval level data, independent samples, normal distributions, and homogeneity of variance (Field, 2000). The requirements regarding interval data and independent samples were met by design. Correlation analysis is extremely robust with respect to the homogeneity of variance assumption so it can be assumed that the data conforms to expectations. The requirement of normality was determined by using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Field, 2000). This test compares the set of scores in the sample to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation. If the test is not significant at the level of 0.05, it means that the distribution of the sample is not significantly different from a normal distribution. That is, the distribution is probably normal. If, however, the distribution is not normal, the test is significant ($p < 0.05$) because this significance means that the distribution is significantly different from a normal distribution.

Table 4.1 shows that the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests are not significant ($r = .12$, $r = .10$), indicating that both the distributions of task values and foreign language use anxiety are not significantly different from normal. The normal Q-Q

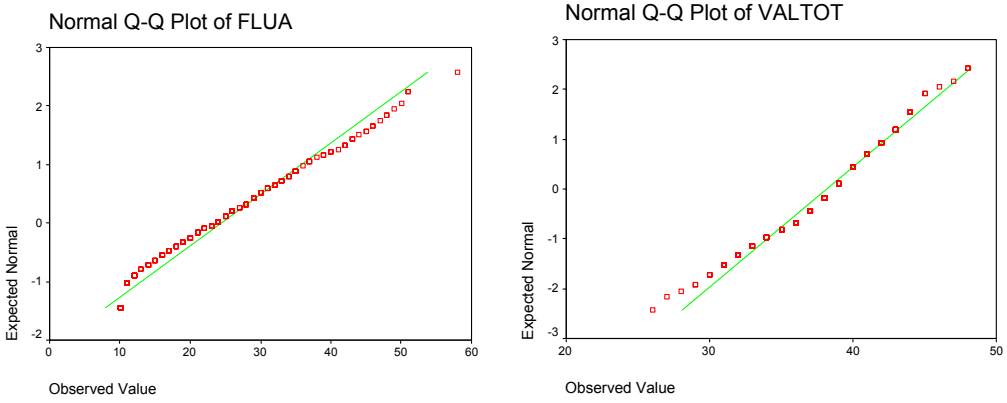
plot (Figure 4.1) for those variables shows that the observed values (i.e., the values actually seen in the data set) are plotted around the straight line (i.e., expected values). Thus, the observed values are the same as one would expect to get from a normally distributed data set. Therefore, the data could be seen as normally distributed.

Table 4.1. Tests of Normality: Foreign Language Use Anxiety and Task Values

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]		
	Statistic	*df*	Sig
VALTOT	.12	198	<.01
FLUA	.10	198	<.01

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Figure 4.1. Normal Q-Q Plots: Foreign Language Use Anxiety and Task Values



Since all the assumptions for the parametric test had been met, it is now possible to conduct the correlation analysis and subsequent significance testing to determine whether or not task values and foreign language use anxiety are related.

A one-tailed test was used because a specific direction for the hypothesis was predicted. A positive correlation between task values and foreign language use anxiety was predicted.

Table 4.2 shows that there is a significant but negative relationship between Task Values and Foreign Language Use Anxiety (FLUA) with a Pearson correlation coefficient of $r = -0.21$ ($p < 0.01$). This means that as anxiety scores increased, task values decreased or vice versa. Task values account for approximately 4.5% of the variation in foreign language use anxiety. There is a less than 0.01 probability that this correlation coefficient would have occurred by chance in a sample of 198 people. However, because the predicted direction was positive, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. That is, there is a no significant positive relationship between the variables.

Nevertheless, Table 4.2 does reveal that there is, in fact, a significant correlation between the task values and foreign language use anxiety. However, it is in the opposite direction that was predicted. Essentially, the data show that as task values increase, foreign language use anxiety goes down. In other words, participants who place a high value on English language learning tend to have a lower level of foreign language use anxiety contrary to predictions.

Table 4.2. Correlation Results: Task Values and Foreign Language Use Anxiety (FLUA)

		Task Values	FLUA
Task Values	Pearson Correlation	1.00	-.21**
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.	<.01
	N	217	198

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

This result runs counter to much previous research. One possible explanation lies in the way in which the independent variable was operationalized. Task values were divided into two components: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic refers to the "pure" interest by the individual with no particular pressure rewards beyond the self. On the other hand, extrinsic refers to a motivation grounded in externally mediated rewards. Extrinsic values can be composed of both importance and utility. In the task value scale, three items asked about importance (Appendix D, items 3 to 5) and two questions related to utility (Appendix D, items 6 to 7). The following Table 4.3 reports the relationship between foreign language use anxiety (FLUA) and three different dimensions of task values. UTILITY represents the utility dimension of extrinsic value, IMPORTANCE is the importance dimension of extrinsic value and INTEREST represents intrinsic value. A second order partial correlation analysis was used in order to get a clearer view of the independent effects of each of the independent variable (i.e., task values) on FLUA.

Table 4.3. Zero Order Partials

	FLUA	IMPORTANCE	INTEREST	UTILITY
FLUA	1.00 (0) *P* = .	.10 (196) *P* = .15	-.29 (196) *P* < .01	-.29 (196) *P* < .01
IMPORT- ANCE	.10 (196) *P* = .15	1.00 (0) *P* = .	.07 (196) *P* = .37	.15 (196) *P* = .04
INTEREST	-.29 (196) *P* = .01	.07 (196) *P* = .37	1.00 (0) *P* = .	.26 (196) *P* < .01
UTILITY	-.29 (196) *P* < .01	.15 (196) *P* = .04	.26 (196) *P* < .01	1.00 (0) *P* = .

(Coefficient / (D.F.) / 2-tailed Significance)

A further analysis of the data (Table 4.3) following Eccles and Wigfield (1995) shows that the independent variables are related to each other. Further, the relationships are not all in the same direction. This means that it is possible that the zero order effects are artificially attenuated. In order to better examine the relationship between task values and FLUA a partial correlation analysis between the dependent variable, FLUA and the independent variables, UTILITY, IMPORTANCE, and INTEREST was conducted.

The results of the partial correlation analysis are given in Table 4.4. Here the data show that FLUA is significantly correlated to all task value types. The *r* value for FLUA and INTEREST is -0.24 ($p < 0.01$). This is consistent with the results for the original correlation which included all dimensions of task values.

The *r* value for FLUA and IMPORTANCE is 0.16 ($p < 0.05$). This suggests a positive relationship between the variables as was originally suggested in the hypothesis. The *r* value between FLUA and UTILITY is -0.25 ($p < 0.01$). Again, the relationship exists but opposite the direction predicted.

Table 4.4. Partial Correlation Coefficients

Controlling for..	IMPORTANCE	UTILITY
	FLUA	**INTEREST**
FLUA	1.00	-.24
	(0)	(194)
	P = .	*P* < .01
Controlling for..	INTEREST	UTILITY
	FLUA	**IMPORTANCE**
FLUA	1.00	.16
	(0)	(194)
	P = .	*P* = .02
Controlling for..	INTEREST	IMPORTANCE
	FLUA	**UTILITY**
FLUA	1.00	-.25
	(0)	(194)
	P = .	*P* < .01

(Coefficient / (D.F.) / 2-tailed Significance)

Taken together, the results of these analyses show that task values are related to foreign language use anxiety. However, the relationship is not as clear as originally predicted. First, there is a positive relationship between FLUA and IMPORTANCE (an extrinsic dimension of task values). If learners viewed learning English as important for their teaching assistantship or if they perceived that others believed it to be important, respondents were more likely to have high

levels of anxiety about using English. However, though significant, it accounts for only 2.7% of the variation in FLUA. On the other hand, FLUA is significantly, albeit negatively, related to UTILITY (an extrinsic dimension) and INTEREST. This means that as the perceived usefulness of English increased, language use anxiety is lower. Similarly, the more interest they had in learning English, the less anxious they were about using it. They are about equally strong. INTEREST accounts for approximately 5.6% and UTILITY 6.3% of the variation in FLUA. Together the three variables account for approximately 15% of the variation. Possible reasons for this will be discussed in Chapter 5.

4.3. Effects of Attribution and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

The second major research question examined the effect of perceptions on foreign language use anxiety. It was hypothesized that the perceptions that learners had about the cause of their success or failure in foreign language learning were related to their levels of foreign language use anxiety. More specifically, learners who attribute their achievement in English learning to uncontrollable variables were predicted to have a higher level of foreign language use anxiety than those who attribute achievement to controllable variables.

Controllability relates to issues of locus of control (LOC). In other words, locus of control has to do with whether or not individuals believe they can

influence the outcome of an event. Early concepts in social psychology framed this dichotomy as "internal" versus "external" (cf. Rotter, 1966; 1990). As recent theory developed, the dichotomy has become more one of "controllability" versus "uncontrollability" (cf. Weiner, 1986; 2000).

Learners' perceptions about English language learning were measured using two different scales: Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (I-E scale) and a scale developed specifically for this study based on the work of Weiner (1986, 2000). Rotter's I-E scale was used to measure the general tendency of locus of control in general life events. The Weiner-based scale measures learners' specific attribution types in English language learning. Specifically, this scale measures how learners attribute their success in language learning to internal and external factors including effort, ability, luck, and task difficulty. Effort is regarded as a controllable factor where all other factors are seen as uncontrollable. Analysis of the relationship between FLUA and perceptions are presented below.

4.3.1. Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

In order to compare the difference between foreign language use anxiety scores among internally focused versus externally focused individuals, it was first

necessary to classify the participants as either internally or externally focused. Rotter's I-E scale consists of 15 dichotomous forced-choice questions (Appendix F). An individual's choice on any question reveals whether the individual believes the cause of an event to be internal or external. A score of "1" indicated internal locus whereas a score of "2" indicated external locus. Individuals were determined to have an "internal locus" if an individual assigned 51% or more of the choices as internal, the individual was given a score of "1" indicating an "internal locus of control." All other individuals were determined to have an "external locus of control."

The specific hypothesis for this research question is

[2] FLUA scores will be higher for individuals with scores of "2" (external) than for individuals with scores of "1" (internal).

H_0: $\mu_2 = \mu_1$

H_1: $\mu_2 > \mu_1$

In order to test this hypothesis, a *t*-test procedure was used. *T*-tests require that the independent variable be nominal or categorical; that the dependent variable be interval; that samples be independent; and that data be normally distributed (Blalock, 1972). The independent variable for this analysis is categorical (i.e., internal versus external). FLUA was measured with a Likert scale and thus may be considered as interval. Since *n* is greater than 50, the

assumption of normality can be relaxed (Blalock, 1972, p.223). By design, the samples are considered independent.

A further requirement concerns the homogeneity of variances. In order to determine whether or not the variances are equal, Levene's test was used. The data in Table 4.5 show no significant difference between the variances ($F = 0.42$, $p = 0.52$). Therefore, the assumption of homogeneity of variances appears to have been met.

Table 4.5. Independent Samples Test

		Levene's for Equality of Variances		*t*-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
FLUA	Equal variances assumed	.42	.52	2.07	196	.04	3.62	1.75

Table 4.5 shows the results of the *t*-test. There is a significant difference between the groups ($t = 2.07$, $p < 0.05$, one-tailed test). Since the hypothesis was directional, the probability for the two-tailed significance value was divided by 2 ($0.04 / 2 = 0.02$). Therefore, English language learners who had external locus of control had higher foreign language use anxiety than learners with internal locus of control.

4.3.2. Weiner's Attribution Framework and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

Consistent with Weiner's framework, four major factors (i.e., effort, ability, task difficulty, and luck) of attribution were measured. A scale was developed specifically for this study (Appendix G) and was used to measure those types of attribution in the context of such foreign language learning tasks as communicative competence, grades, and TOEFL scores. Internal attributions mean that learners attribute the causes to ability and effort. External attributions indicate a belief that events were caused by task difficulty and luck.

This questionnaire required students to identify the percentage that a series of items contributed to their success in communicating in English, TOEFL scores, and grades in English classes. Within each category, participants were presented six to eight possible causes of each event. Respondents were asked to determine how much each contributed to the cause. The percentages for all choices must total 100%.

If the percentage for ability and effort related items was greater than 51%, the individual was deemed to be "internal" and given a score of "1." All the other individuals were given a score of "2" and deemed to be "external." These two groups provided the basis for comparison.

To test the hypothesis that learners who attribute their success at foreign language learning to internal variables will have less anxiety than those who

attribute to external variables, a *t*-test was used. As shown in Table 4.6, there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups ($t = 2.00$, $p < 0.05$). Those who attributed their success in foreign language learning internally had higher levels of foreign language use anxiety than those who attributed externally. This result is different from the one drawn from Rotter's measurement. Therefore, it was desirable to examine whether these two constructs (i.e., Rotter's Internal-External Locus and Weiner's Internal locus) were measuring the same dimensions.

Table 4.6. *T*-Test Results: External Variables and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t*-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
FLUA	Equal variances assumed	.02	.89	2.00	179	<.05	3.80

4.3.3. Rotter's and Weiner's Measures of Internal-External Locus

In order to examine whether or not Rotter's and Weiner's scales are measuring the same construct, a correlation was computed. Because the variables were categorically coded, a chi-square test was used. The chi-square value of 0.62 ($p = 0.43$) indicates no significance suggesting that the two measures of locus of control are not related each other. Therefore, each is likely tapping different dimensions of the construct.

Table 4.7. Chi-Square Test Results: Relating to Internal Locus of Controls

	Value	*df*	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.62	1	.43		
N of Valid Cases	181				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table
b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.80.

In fact, this would seem to be the case. Rotter's scale was meant to measure a more general tendency of locus in life events whereas the Weiner's construct assessed situation-specific attributions. In this study, the Weiner-based scale was meant to measure attributions in a specific foreign language learning situation. Therefore, it is possible that most learners have different attributions when they encounter language learning situations.

Although Weiner's framework was theoretically developed based on Rotter's single internal-external locus of control dimension it went beyond the original formulation by including three different dimensions: locus, stability, and control (Stipek, 2002). Weiner (1986, 2000) argued that simply examining attribution focusing on one dimension (i.e., locus) of attributions may not give a clear picture of what learners actually believe causes success in language learning. In order to gain a clearer picture of the role of attributions on foreign language use anxiety, the dimension of controllability is included in subsequent analyses.

4.3.4. Controllability and Foreign Language Use Anxiety in Different Foreign Language Learning Tasks

According to Weiner's framework, internal locus is composed of two factors (i.e., ability, effort). Only effort is considered "controllable" whereas other factors (i.e., ability, task difficulty, and luck) are "uncontrollable" whether they are internal (i.e., ability) or external (i.e., task difficulty, luck). Therefore, taking a look at the effort factor in the different foreign language learning tasks might provide a picture of how learners' controllability is related to foreign language use anxiety.

All effort scores were added and grouped into two groups. Those who scored low in effort were given a score of "1" whereas those who scored high in effort were given a score of "2." Learners in Group 2 believe that success in language learning depends on a controllable variable (i.e., effort) whereas learners in Group 1 do not. Again, the difference of means test (*t*-test) was used. Tables 4.8, 4.9, and 4.10 show that there is a statistical significance between groups in all three foreign language learning tasks.

With respect to communicating in English, Table 4.8 shows that there is a significant difference between the groups (t = -2.17, $p < 0.05$, two-tailed test). This means that people who made lower attributions to effort had lower levels of foreign language use anxiety. In other words, if people felt they had more control

over the outcome, they were more likely to have high levels of foreign language use anxiety.

Table 4.8. Descriptives and *t*-Test Results: Effort in Communication and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

Group Statistics

	CAT_CEFF	*N*	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
FLUA	1.00	155	23.69	11.04	.89
	2.00	35	28.31	12.81	2.17

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t*-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
FLUA	Equal variances assumed	2.34	.19	-2.17	188	.03	-4.62

Table 4.9 shows that those who believe that success in TOEFL depends on how much effort they put in also have higher levels of foreign language use anxiety than those who do not attribute success to effort ($t = -2.17$, $p < 0.05$).

Table 4.9. Descriptives and *t*-Test Results: Effort in TOEFL and FLUA

Group Statistics

	CAT_TEFF	*N*	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
FLUA	1.00	161	23.76	11.33	.89
	2.00	32	28.53	11.16	1.97

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t*-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
FLUA	Equal variances assumed	.01	.91	-2.18	191	.03	-4.77

Interestingly, individuals who believe that grades in English classes are primarily due to effort do not have higher levels of foreign language use anxiety than those who do not as shown in Table 4.10. Foreign language use anxiety does not appear to be related to attributions of controllability for grades.

Table 4.10. Descriptives and *t*-Test Results: Effort in Grades and FLUA

Group Statistics

	CAT_GEFF	*N*	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
FLUA	1.00	162	24.58	11.56	.91
	2.00	26	25.23	11.27	2.21

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t*-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
FLUA	Equal variances assumed	.002	.96	-.27	186	.79	-.65

These three tables reveal that the situations about which attributions of cause are being made are important. Related to communicating in English and performing on TOEFL tests, higher levels of foreign language use anxiety are experienced by those who believe they have the most control. Individuals who believe they are not in control of those things do not, in fact, experience high levels of foreign language use anxiety.

These results are contrary to what attribution theory would predict. Greater control should lead to reduced anxiety. However, this was not the case. Rotter's scale, on the other hand, did show results in the predicted direction. A further discussion and analysis for these findings will follow in Chapter 5.

4.4. Effects of Cultural Differences on Foreign Language Use Anxiety

The third major research question examined cultural differences in foreign language use anxiety. To measure cultural differences, Triandis et al. scale (Triandis et al., 1999, see Appendix I) was used. The scenario questions measured individual's cultural constructs. Two constructs were identified (i.e., collectivism and individualism).

There were also two major sub-hypotheses to examine the possible relationships between cultural constructs and foreign language use anxiety. First,

it was hypothesized that those who had a high proportion of collectivistic constructs would have a higher score on foreign language use anxiety than those who had individualistic constructs. It was further hypothesized that those with a high proportion of collectivistic constructs would have higher scores on extrinsic task values than those who had individualistic constructs.

4.4.1. Cultural Constructs and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

Individuals were identified as either collectivistic or individualistic in order to examine the hypothesis that learners who come from collectivistic cultures have a higher level of foreign language use anxiety than those from individualistic cultures.

The Triandis et al. scale (1998) is composed of 16 items. Each of which has four alternative responses. Individuals are required to choose two of the answers and rank them according to their most preferred preferences. The four choices represent four cultural constructs (i.e., horizontal individualism, vertical individualism, horizontal collectivism, and vertical collectivism). These were used to determine whether an individual could be considered to have one of the four cultural constructs.

In order to determine which cultural constructs characterized an individual, the following procedure was used. First, the number of first

preferences of each type of cultural constructs was calculated for each individual. The category with the first highest number for preferences was used to define the individual. For example, if the individual chose vertical collectivism five times, horizontal collectivism six times, vertical individualism three times, and horizontal individualism two times, the individual was defined as collectivistic. Readers should note that the initial division is based on the collectivistic and individualistic dimensions.

The hypothesis of interest here is as follows.

[3] Individuals in collectivistic tendencies will have a higher level of foreign language use anxiety than individuals in individualistic tendencies.

H_0: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$

H_1: $\mu_1 > \mu_2$

Individuals who rated high in collectivism were given a score of "1" and all others were given a score of "2." In other words, individuals who chose a collectivist response at least half of the time were considered to be "collectivists." Because the independent variable (cultural groups of individualism and collectivism) was nominal and the dependent variable (foreign language use anxiety) was interval, a one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare means of those groups. Table 4.11 shows that there was no statistical

significance in mean comparisons between cultural constructs (collectivism versus individualism) and foreign language use anxiety.

Table 4.11 shows the result of a one-way ANOVA. There was no significant difference between groups ($F_{1, 198} = 3.12$, $p = 0.08$). This means that the foreign language anxiety scores are not affected by individuals' cultural tendencies.

Table 4.11. Descriptives and ANOVA Results: Foreign Language Use Anxiety and Cultural Constructs

Descriptives
FLUA

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Collectivist	64	26.53	10.65	1.33	23.87	29.19	10.00	51.00
Individualist	136	23.52	11.56	.99	21.56	25.48	10.00	58.00
Total	200	24.48	11.34	.80	22.90	26.06	10.00	58.00

ANOVA
FLUA

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Between Groups	396.01	1	396.01	3.12	.08
Within Groups	25171.91	198	127.13		
Total	25567.92	199			

In order to test the second hypothesis relating cultural constructs and task values, a one-way ANOVA was used. The hypothesis is

[4] Individuals with collectivistic tendencies will have higher extrinsic task values than individuals with individualistic tendencies.

H_0: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$

H_1: $\mu_1 > \mu_2$

Table 4.12 shows no significant difference between groups with respect to external task values. This means that cultural tendencies do not inform task value preferences. Collectivists are as likely as individualists to have external task value preferences.

Table 4.12. Descriptives and ANOVA Results: Task Values and Cultural Constructs

Descriptives

EXTRNVAL

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Collectivist	66	28.70	3.23	.40	27.90	29.49	20.00	35.00
Individualist	152	28.07	3.07	.25	27.58	28.56	17.00	34.00
Total	218	28.26	3.12	.21	27.84	28.68	17.00	35.00

ANOVA

EXTERN TASK VALUES

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Between Groups	17.95	1	17.95	1.85	.18
Within Groups	2100.14	216	9.72		
Total	2118.10	217			

Triandis and others (Triandis, 1995; Triandis et al., 1998) divided cultural constructs into four groups (i.e., hierarchical individualism (HI), vertical individualism (VI), hierarchical collectivism (HC), vertical collectivism (VC)). Since no significance was obtained with a dichotomous division, it was decided to examine the relationship between FLUA and cultural constructs using the finer distinctions based on these four constructs.

Each participant was assigned a category based on the most frequently identified cultural construct. If there were ties in the number of frequencies, the case was treated as missing data and removed from further analysis. Table 4.13 showed the descriptive statistics of the participants' tendency in terms of four

different cultural constructs. Because the number of vertical collectivists (VC) was small ($n = 2$), this category was removed from further analysis.

Table 4.13. Descriptive Statistics of Cultural Constructs
FLUA

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
HI	104	23.52	11.22	1.10	21.34	25.70	10.00	58.00
VI	10	27.20	14.00	4.43	17.19	37.21	10.00	49.00
HC	59	24.97	10.70	1.39	22.18	27.76	10.00	50.00
VC	2	22.50	9.19	6.50	-60.09	105.09	16.00	29.00
Total	175	24.21	11.15	.84	22.54	25.87	10.00	58.00

Table 4.14 showed no significant differences among those three groups based on ANOVA. The results were the same whether two dimensions of cultural constructs (individualism and collectivism) were used or the four dimensions of cultural constructs (hierarchical individualism, vertical individualism, hierarchical collectivism, and vertical collectivism) were used. Learners who came from collectivistic cultures (either horizontal collectivism or vertical collectivism) did not have a higher level of foreign language anxiety than those from individualistic cultures (either horizontal individualism or vertical individualism).

Table 4.14. ANOVA Results: Cultural Constructs and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

FLUA

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Between Groups	172.71	2	86.36	.69	.50
Within Groups	21367.49	170	125.69		
Total	21540.21	172			

It is sometimes to be said that certain countries are more collectivist than others (Triandis, 1995; Triandis et al., 1998). In order to test this hypothesis, four geographical divisions were formed (i.e., North and South America, Asia, Europe, India). India and their neighboring nations such as Bangladesh, Pakistan, and Iran were grouped into one group because a large proportion of the participants came from India (n = 99). Singapore was eliminated from the group of Asia because there was only one participant and the person expressed that English was his/her first language and it was impossible to guess where his race was from different races existing in Singapore. One Irish participant was also removed from the further grouping because he stated that English was his first language. One African participant had to be removed from further analysis because a single participant was insufficient to meet the conditions of group size for the analysis. Thus, a total of four groups were used for further analysis (North & South America, Asia except Singapore, Europe, and a group from India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran).

Since both variables were nominal (countries and cultural tendencies), a chi-square test was used. Table 4.15 shows that cultural constructs do vary by country ($\chi^2 = 22.23$, $df = 6$, $p < 0.01$). As can be seen from the table, North and South Americans are more individualistic than expected, as are Europeans. The group defined as Indian was more collectivist than expected.

Table 4.15. Crosstabulation and Chi-Square Results: Country Groups and Cultural Constructs

RECNTRY1 * CAT_CC2 Crosstabulation

			CAT_CC2			Total
			HI	VI	HC	
RECNTRY1	North & South America	Count	15	1	2	18
		Expected Count	10.7	1.1	6.1	18.0
	Asia except Singapore	Count	24	5	16	45
		Expected Count	26.8	2.8	15.3	45.0
	Europe except Irish	Count	25	0	3	28
		Expected Count	16.7	1.8	9.5	28.0
	India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	Count	41	5	39	85
		Expected Count	50.7	5.3	29.0	85.0
Total		Count	105	11	60	176
		Expected Count	105.0	11.0	60.0	176.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	*df*	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.23	6	<.01
Likelihood Ratio	25.38	6	<.01
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.03	1	<.05
N of Valid Cases	176		

a. 3 cells (25.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.13.

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.36	<.01
	Cramer's V	.25	<.01
	Contingency Coefficient	.34	<.01
N of Valid Cases		176	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

It has also been noted that individuals from some countries are more anxious than others with regards to foreign language anxiety (Truitt, 1995; Kim, 1998; Kim, 2000). The independent variable (i.e., countries) is nominal and the dependent variable, FLUA, is interval in this analysis. Therefore, a one-way ANOVA was used to compare means. Table 4.16 shows that there is a significant mean difference among countries and foreign language use anxiety ($F_{3, 193} = 31.63$, $p < 0.01$). That is, foreign language use anxiety differs depending on the countries.

Table 4.16. ANOVA Results: Countries and Foreign Language Use Anxiety FLUA

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Between Groups	8321.03	3	2773.68	31.63	<.01
Within Groups	16926.22	193	87.70		
Total	25247.25	196			

Because an ANOVA test does not tell us where the significant mean differences occur, post hoc tests were done to compare all groups of participants with each other. The Least-Significant Difference (LSD) pairwise comparison was used because the data met the LSD assumption that the overall ANOVA was significant (Field, 2000). Table 4.17 showed the multiple comparisons among four categories of countries and foreign language use anxiety. According to the table, the mean of Asia differs significantly from that of other countries (mean difference between Asia and North & South America = 10.77, $p < 0.01$, mean

difference between Asia and Europe = 10.28, $p < 0.01$, mean difference between Asia and a group of India = 15.34, $p < 0.01$). That is, respondents from Asia in this study have a higher level of foreign language use anxiety compared to those from other countries.

Table 4.17. Post Hoc Tests Results: Countries and Foreign Language Use Anxiety
Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: FLUA

	(I) country	(J) country	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
LSD	North & South America	Asia	-10.77*	2.53	<.01	-15.76	-5.77
		Europe	-.49	2.79	.86	-6.00	5.02
		India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	4.58	2.41	.06	-.19	9.34
	Asia	North & South America	10.77*	2.53	<.01	5.77	15.76
		Europe	10.28*	2.11	<.01	6.11	14.44
		India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	15.34*	1.58	<.01	12.23	18.45
	Europe	North & South America	.49	2.79	.86	-5.02	6.00
		Asia	-10.28*	2.11	<.01	-14.44	-6.11
		India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	5.06*	1.97	.01	1.18	8.95
	India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	North & South America	-4.58	2.41	.06	-9.34	.19
		Asia	-15.34*	1.58	<.01	-18.45	-12.23
		Europe	-5.06*	1.97	.01	-8.95	-1.18

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

This result posed an interesting question whether anxiety varied among Asians by country. A further analysis was conducted to determine whether or not any differences existed in foreign language use anxiety across Asian countries. As shown in Table 4.18, some countries had only one participant: Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand, and Japan. Those groups were eliminated from further analysis because post hoc tests can not be performed when at least one group has fewer than two cases (SPSS, 1999).

Table 4.18. Descriptive Statistics: Asian Groups
FLUA

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
China	18	34.00	5.09	1.20	31.47	36.53	25.00	43.00
Nepal	2	17.50	.71	.50	11.15	23.85	17.00	18.00
Korea	24	38.92	12.39	2.53	33.68	44.15	10.00	58.00
Taiwan	8	27.63	6.12	2.16	22.51	32.74	20.00	35.00
Hong Kong	2	29.50	6.36	4.50	-27.68	86.68	25.00	34.00
Indonesia	1	18.00	.	.	.	.	18.00	18.00
Singapore	1	35.00	.	.	.	.	35.00	35.00
Thailand	1	31.00	.	.	.	.	31.00	31.00
Japan	1	40.00	.	.	.	.	40.00	40.00
Total	58	34.22	10.31	1.35	31.51	36.94	10.00	58.00

An ANOVA test was conducted to compare means between Asian countries (i.e., China, Nepal, Korea, Taiwan, Hong Kong) and foreign language

use anxiety. Table 4.19 shows that all Asian countries were not the same with respect to foreign language use anxiety ($F_{4, 49} = 4.24$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 4.19. ANOVA Results: Asian Countries and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

FLUA

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Between Groups	1478.72	4	369.68	4.24	<.01
Within Groups	4274.71	49	87.24		
Total	5753.43	53			

Post hoc tests were conducted to determine where the mean differences occurred among the groups. Games-Howell tests were chosen for several reasons. First, as presented in Table 4.20, the homogeneity of variance tests showed that there was a significant difference among the variances of the groups ($p < 0.01$). That is, the variances could not be assumed to be equal. Second, the group sizes were unequal. Since Games-Howell is accurate when sample sizes are different (Field, 2000, p. 276) and does not require equal variances, it was chosen as the superior test for this analysis.

Table 4.20. Test of Homogeneity of Variances: Asian Countries and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

FLUA

Levene Statistic	*df*1	*df* 2	Sig.
3.88	4	49	<.01

Table 4.21 presents the multiple comparisons among five countries in Asia and foreign language use anxiety. According to the table, the mean of Korea is significantly higher than those of Nepal and Taiwan (mean difference between Korea and Nepal = 21.42, $p < 0.01$, mean difference between Korea and Taiwan = 11.29, $p < 0.05$). The means of Taiwan and China are significantly higher than that of Nepal (mean difference between Taiwan and Nepal = 10.13, $p < 0.05$, mean difference between China and Nepal = 16.50, $p < 0.01$). That is, Korean participants have a higher level of foreign language anxiety compared to Nepalese and Taiwanese. Chinese have a higher level of foreign language anxiety than Nepalese. Korean and Chinese learners have the highest level of anxiety among the Asian groups.

Descriptively, the rank of countries in descending order of anxiety is Korea, China, Hong Kong, Taiwan and Nepal. Nepalese students showed significantly lower levels of anxiety than all other groups. After that, the analysis becomes murky. Koreans were not different from Chinese but were higher than Taiwanese and Hong Kong. Chinese, on the other hand, were higher only than Nepalese. Therefore, we cannot clearly state which group is higher although there are two indicators that Korea and China are somewhat higher than everyone else. The first is a simple comparison of the descriptive means (Korean = 38.92, China = 34.00). The second occurs if we consider Hong Kong as Chinese (Due to

current political conditions Hong Kong may or may not be so considered though they are technically part of China since 1999). If we include Hong Kong students in the Chinese grouping, then the data (see Table 4.22) clearly show three homogeneous subsets in descending order of anxiety: Korea and China, Taiwan, and Nepal. In any case, the overarching finding here is that there are significant differences in the levels of anxiety exhibited by Asian students. Asians are higher than all other groups in this study but it would be shortsighted to assume that all Asians suffer from the same degree of anxiety.

Table 4.21. Post Hoc Tests Results: Asian Countries and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

Dependent Variable: FLUA

	(I) Asia	(J) Asia	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Games - Howell	China	Nepal	16.50*	6.96	<.01	12.50	20.50
		Korea	-4.92	2.91	.42	-13.00	3.17
		Taiwan	6.38	3.97	.14	-1.56	14.31
		Hong Kong	4.50	6.96	.85	-83.66	92.66
	Nepal	China	-16.50*	6.96	<.01	-20.50	-12.50
		Korea	-21.42*	6.87	<.01	-29.01	-13.82
		Taiwan	-10.13*	7.39	.01	-17.89	-2.36
		Hong Kong	-12.00	9.34	.45	-123.60	99.60
	Korea	China	4.92	2.91	.42	-3.17	13.00
		Nepal	21.42*	6.87	<.01	13.82	29.01
		Taiwan	11.29*	3.81	.02	1.52	21.07
		Hong Kong	9.42	6.87	.55	-38.43	57.27
	Taiwan	China	-6.38	3.97	.14	-14.31	1.56
		Nepal	10.13*	7.38	.01	2.36	17.88
		Korea	-11.29*	3.81	.02	-21.07	-1.52
		Hong Kong	-1.88	7.38	.99	-58.56	54.81
	Hong Kong	China	-4.50	6.96	.85	-92.66	83.66
		Nepal	12.00	9.34	.45	-99.60	123.60
		Korea	-9.42	6.87	.55	-57.27	38.43
		Taiwan	1.88	7.38	.99	-54.81	58.56

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Range values cannot be computed.

Table 4.22. Games-Howell Results: Asian Countries and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

Dependent Variable: FLUA

Games-Howell

(I) Asia	(J) Asia	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
China	Nepal	16.05*	6.89	<.01	12.43	19.68
	Korea	-5.37	2.81	.24	-12.91	2.18
	Taiwan	5.93	3.89	.13	-1.44	13.29
Nepal	China	-16.05*	6.89	<.01	-19.68	-12.43
	Korea	-21.42*	6.83	<.01	-28.53	-14.30
	Taiwan	-10.13*	7.34	.01	-17.32	-2.93
Korea	China	5.37	2.81	.24	-2.18	12.91
	Nepal	21.42*	6.83	<.01	14.30	28.53
	Taiwan	11.29*	3.79	.01	2.14	20.45
Taiwan	China	-5.93	3.89	.13	-13.29	1.44
	Nepal	10.13*	7.34	.01	2.93	17.32
	Korea	-11.29*	3.79	.01	-20.45	-2.14

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

In sum, there was no apparent relationship between collectivist and individualist tendencies and the amount of foreign language use anxiety. Learners with collectivist tendencies and those with individualist tendencies showed the same levels of anxiety in this study. However, when the geographical divisions were used, learners from Asia showed a higher level of foreign language use anxiety than those from other divisions of the world. In particular, Korean and Chinese seemed to have a higher level of anxiety than other groups in Asia. Culture seems to matter when it comes to foreign language use anxiety but not in the way Triandis has framed. Potential explanations and implications will be discussed in the Chapter 5.

4.4.2. Effects of Country on Attributions

In order to examine the effects of cultures on language learning, the relationship between country and attributions were analyzed. It was hypothesized that attributions will vary by country.

A one-way ANOVA test was used to examine the differences in external attributions based on the country. Table 4.23 shows a significant difference ($F_{3, 179} = 6.56$, $p < 0.01$). That is, countries and external locus were related.

Table 4.23. Descriptives and ANOVA Results: Countries and Attributions

Descriptives

EXTERNAL

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
North & South America	17	28.20	14.05	3.41	20.98	35.42	6.67	51.67
Asia except Singapore	56	33.21	12.46	1.66	29.88	36.55	1.67	63.33
Europe except Irish	25	33.64	11.91	2.38	28.72	38.56	10.00	56.67
India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	85	41.33	15.78	1.71	37.93	44.73	.00	80.00
Total	183	36.58	14.82	1.10	34.41	38.74	.00	80.00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

EXTERNAL

Levene Statistic	*df*1	*df*2	Sig.
1.26	3	179	.29

ANOVA

EXTERNAL

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Between Groups	3962.73	3	1320.91	6.56	<.01
Within Groups	36030.42	179	201.29		
Total	39993.15	182			

Post Hoc tests (Tables 4.24 and 4.25) were done to show where mean differences exist in the data. Tukey's test was used because it is robust with unequal cell sizes and has good power for pairwise contrasts (Newton &

Rudestam, 1999). The analysis shows that the group identified with India has a significantly higher number of external attributions than North and South Americans. Asians have significantly fewer external attributions than the group of India. Therefore, it can be said that the group of India has the highest number of external attributions.

Table 4.24. Post Hoc Test Results: Country and Attributions

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: EXTERNAL

	(I) country	(J) country	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	North & South America	Asia	-5.02	3.93	.58	-15.11	5.08
		Europe	-5.44	4.46	.61	-16.90	6.01
		India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	-13.13*	3.77	<.01	-22.82	-3.45
	Asia	North & South America	5.02	3.93	.58	-5.08	15.11
		Europe	-.43	3.41	.99	-9.19	8.34
		India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	-8.12*	2.45	<.01	-14.39	-1.84
	Europe	North & South America	5.44	4.46	.61	-6.01	16.90
		Asia	.43	3.41	.99	-8.34	9.19
		India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	-7.69	3.23	.08	-15.98	.60
	India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	North & South America	13.13*	3.77	<.01	3.45	22.82
		Asia	8.12*	2.44	<.01	1.84	14.39
		Europe	7.69	3.23	.08	-.60	15.98

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 4.25. Post Hoc Test Results: Country and Attributions — Homogeneous Subsets

EXTERNAL

	Country	*N*	Subset for alpha = .05	
			1	2
Tukey HSD	North & South America	17	28.20	
	Asia	56	33.21	33.21
	Europe	25	33.64	33.64
	India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	85		41.33
	Sig.		.43	.11

Means for groups in homogeneous subsets are displayed.

a. Uses Harmonic Mean Sample Size = 31.14.

b. The group sizes are unequal. The harmonic mean of the group sizes is used. Type I error levels are not guaranteed.

The previous analysis considered external attributions based on Weiner's formulation. In other words, external attributions are those related to task difficulty and luck. Internal attributions are those related to effort and ability. As noted earlier, the notion of internal and external may be less useful than controllable and noncontrollable especially for this group of participants. Therefore, further analysis will test the same hypothesis but based on a variation of Weiner's notion. A one-way ANOVA test was used to examine differences in attributions of controllability based on country. Table 4.26 shows a significant difference ($F_{3, 180} = 8.95$, $p < 0.01$). That is, countries and attributions of controllability were found to be related.

Table 4.26. Descriptives and ANOVA: Attributions of Controllability by Country

Descriptives

EFFTOT

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
North & South America	17	37.49	22.74	5.52	25.80	49.18	1.67	86.67
Asia	56	41.10	13.69	1.83	37.43	44.77	3.33	76.67
Europe	25	35.81	17.82	3.56	28.46	43.17	6.67	83.33
India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	86	27.37	15.27	1.65	24.10	30.65	.00	78.00
Total	184	33.63	17.00	1.25	31.16	36.11	.00	86.67

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

EFFTOT

Levene Statistic	*df*1	*df*2	Sig.
2.55	3	180	.06

ANOVA

EFFTOT

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Between Groups	6866.22	3	2288.74	8.95	<.01
Within Groups	46033.68	180	255.74		
Total	52899.89	183			

Tukey's post hoc analysis (Table 4.27) was conducted in order to determine where the significant differences were. Only one significant difference emerged. The group from India made significantly fewer attributions of controllability than Asians. Although Asians made more controllable attributions

than either North and South Americans or Europeans, there were no significant differences. Interestingly, although Asians exhibit the highest level of foreign language use anxiety, they also believe they have more control over their learning than other groups.

Table 4.27. Post Hoc Tests Results: Attributions of Controllability by Country
Dependent Variable: EFFORT
Tukey HSD

(I) country	(J) country	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
North & South America	Asia	-3.61	4.43	.85	-14.99	7.77
	Europe	1.68	5.03	.99	-11.24	14.59
	India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	10.12	4.25	.08	-.79	21.02
Asia	North & South America	3.61	4.43	.85	-7.77	14.99
	Europe	5.29	3.85	.52	-4.59	15.17
	India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	13.73*	2.75	<.01	6.68	20.78
Europe	North & South America	-1.68	5.03	.99	-14.59	11.24
	Asia	-5.29	3.85	.52	-15.17	4.59
	India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	8.44	3.63	.09	-.89	17.78
India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	North & South America	-10.12	4.25	.08	-21.02	.79
	Asia	-13.73*	2.75	<.01	-20.78	-6.68
	Europe	-8.44	3.63	.09	-17.78	.89

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

4.4.3. Effects of Country on Task Values

With regard to the relationship between countries and task values, there were no significant mean differences ($F_{3, 210} = 0.47$, $p = 0.7$ as shown in Table 4.28). This result means that task values do not vary by country.

Table 4.28. Descriptives and ANOVA Results: Country and Task Values

Descriptives

EXTRINSIC TASK VALUES

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
North & South America	19	28.95	1.68	.39	28.14	29.76	26.00	32.00
Asia	63	28.08	3.53	.45	27.19	28.97	20.00	34.00
Europe	31	28.36	2.80	.50	27.33	29.38	20.00	34.00
India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, & Iran	101	28.08	3.13	.31	27.46	28.70	17.00	35.00
Total	214	28.20	3.11	.21	27.78	28.62	17.00	35.00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

EXTRINSIC TASK VALUES

Levene Statistic	*df*1	*df*2	Sig.
3.28	3	210	.02

ANOVA

EXTRINSIC TASK VALUES

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Between Groups	13.74	3	4.58	.47	.70
Within Groups	2040.01	210	9.71		
Total	2053.76	213			

This study set out to examine the relationships, if any, between task values, attributions, cultural constructs and foreign language use anxiety. The study found that task values were related to foreign language use anxiety. As task values increased, foreign language use anxiety decreased, a result running counter to expectations. A closer examination revealed that when the three dimensions of task values were considered separately, each was significantly related to foreign language use anxiety. INTEREST and UTILITY were negatively related to foreign language use anxiety while IMPORTANT was positively related. The failure to find a positive relationship between task values and foreign language use anxiety in the overall may have been due to attenuation stemming from a classic suppression effect.

The next set of examinations focused on locus of control. One measurement was based on Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control scale and these results showed that English language learners who had an external locus of control had higher foreign language use anxiety than learners with an internal locus of control. A second test was based on Weiner's attribution framework. Here results revealed that those who attributed their success in foreign language learning internally had higher levels of foreign language use anxiety than those who attributed externally. This result is different from the one drawn from Rotter's measurement, and therefore, these results appear to be inconsistent.

Further analysis and comparisons, however, attempted to resolve this apparent inconsistency. Of immediate interest is the fact that no relationship appears to exist between Rotter's measure and Weiner's measure. This result suggests that different dimensions are being addressed by each test.

An analysis of attributions from Weiner's framework within specific language learning situations revealed that respondents who make fewer attributions to controllable events (effort) have lower levels of foreign language use anxiety in both Communication of English and TOEFL situations. No significant difference was found for grades in English courses.

For cultural constructs it was found that there was no significant difference existed between groups. This means that the foreign language anxiety scores are not affected by individuals' cultural tendencies. Similarly, task values and individualist tendencies regarding collectivism and individualism were not related.

However, cultural constructs did vary by country. Results show that, North and South Americans are more individualistic than expected, as are Europeans. Similarly, a relationship exists between countries and foreign language use anxiety. Learners with collectivist tendencies do not have a higher level of foreign language use anxiety than those with individualist tendencies. However, when we use the geographical divisions, learners from Asia show a

higher level of foreign language use anxiety than those from other divisions of the world. Particularly, Korean and Chinese learners seem to have the highest level of anxiety among Asians. Culture seems to matter when it comes for foreign language use anxiety but not in the way Triandis has framed.

External locus did vary by country. The analysis shows that the group identified with India has a significantly higher number of external attributions than North and South Americans. Asians have significantly fewer external attributions than the group of India. Therefore, it can be said that the group of India has the highest number of external attributions.

Attributions of controllability vary by country. The group from India makes significantly fewer attributions of controllability than Asians. Although Asians made more controllable attributions than either North and South Americans or Europeans, it was not a significant difference. Interestingly, although Asians exhibit the highest level of foreign language use anxiety, they believe they have more control over their learning than other groups.

Finally, it was determined that task values do not vary by country. This suggests that various countries do not attach particular levels of importance to English language learning.

It can be said that these results pose some interesting puzzles and hold some interesting implications for those interesting in determining factors related

to foreign language use anxiety. These will be discussed more fully in the following chapter. Attempts will be made to resolve some of these apparent inconsistencies and to suggest directions for future research.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter includes discussions of the major findings, implications for theory and instruction, limitations, and recommendations for further research.

5.1. MAJOR FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The purpose of the study was to examine how foreign language anxiety is related to attributional perceptions and cultural orientations. Rotter's perceived locus of control in the paradigm of expectancy-value theory and Weiner's attribution theory were introduced to measure the nature of perceptions and attributions regarding the success or failure of an outcome: in this case, second language acquisition. Triandis' cultural constructs were also used to operationalize the concept of cultural orientations. Further, the concept of valences developed by Eccles and Wigfield was used to determine participants' values related to foreign language learning.

Three major hypotheses were tested. First, a positive relationship was predicted between task values and foreign language use anxiety. This hypothesis was based on Pekrun's expectancy-value theory that a negative event expectation combined with a high valence can lead to anxiety. Specifically, this study hypothesized that the higher the task values, the higher the anxiety. Second, it was

hypothesized that learners who had a lower sense of control over the achievement of a foreign language would have a higher level of anxiety than those who had a higher sense of control. The rationale for this hypothesis was based on attribution theory which states that learners lose a sense of control when they attribute a failure to external causes and, therefore, increase the level of anxiety in learning tasks. Third, this study examined the relationship between cultural constructs and foreign language use anxiety. Previous literature has suggested that attributions tend to differ by the culture and that task values seem to be influenced by beliefs and perceptions that have been constructed uniquely depending on the culture. Therefore, it was assumed that learners' cultural constructs would be related to anxiety. Specifically, this study examined the hypothesis that those who had collectivist cultural orientations would experience higher levels of foreign language use anxiety than those who had individualist orientations.

5.1.1. Task Values and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

Regarding the relationship between the value of learning a foreign language and foreign language use anxiety, the data did not support the original hypothesis of a positive relationship between task values and foreign language use anxiety. In fact, a significant, albeit negative, correlation was found. As the value of learning a foreign language increases, foreign language use anxiety appears to

go down. In order to examine further the effects of task values on foreign language use anxiety, a second order partial correlation analysis was used. Task values consisted of "interest," "importance," and "utility" in learning a foreign language. The results showed that "interest" (i.e., pure interest in foreign language learning) is negatively correlated to foreign language use anxiety. The more learners were intrinsically interested in learning a foreign language, the less they experienced foreign language use anxiety. "Importance" was positively related to foreign language use anxiety. The more importance learners attached to learning a foreign language, the higher the level of anxiety experienced. However, interestingly, "utility" appears to be negatively related to foreign language use anxiety. The more utility learners felt a foreign language would have in their future, the less foreign language use anxiety they had.

As noted earlier, the expected positive relationship between task values and foreign language use anxiety did not materialize. In an effort to understand why, further analysis broke task values into its three key components: interest, importance, and utility. Here, it is clear that the subcomponents related to task values do not function in the same way. "Importance" functions in the expected fashion. That is, there is a positive relation between "importance" and foreign language use anxiety. However, both "utility" and "interest" showed a negative

correlation with foreign language use anxiety. Thus, "utility" and "interest" appear to function in opposition to theoretical expectations.

In this study, task value was measured using all three components. In the general literature, task value is often conceived as being either "intrinsic" or "extrinsic." The current formulation does not make such a distinction. A careful look reveals that the initial apparent failure to support the hypothesis may not be as serious as first thought. In fact, "importance" functions as it is supposed to. If we consider the intrinsic – extrinsic continuum, "interest" functions as expected. "Utility" appears to be the exception. As utility goes up, anxiety goes down in contrast to theoretical formulations.

Rethinking the current conceptualization, it may be that "utility" was seen by these students as a more futuristic, unreal, and imaginary issue and thus was seen as being of less immediate importance. The more immediate the threat (or perceived negative outcome) is, the more anxiety is produced. As immediacy diminishes, perceptions of threat similarly diminish so that even though individuals perceive potential negative consequences, this does not yield increased anxiety due to the fact that these consequences are in the future.

These results suggest that future studies using task value and its subcomponents must be careful to do one of two things: make sure that the operationizations of "utility" and "importance" occur or refer to a similar time

referent or provide a separate analysis for each component. Since these appear to be somewhat distinct dimensions, greater care in the definition and operationization of task values is required.

Nevertheless, the results of this study imply that international teaching assistants (ITAs) who perceived English to be crucial to successful teaching at this university, experienced elevated feelings of foreign language use anxiety. They were not so worried about the role of English in future jobs, perhaps because they paid it less importance/attention.

5.1.2. Attributions and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

The study hypothesized that as perceptions of internal control go up, feelings of foreign language use anxiety go down. The learners' perceptions of internal control were measured by two scales: Rotter's internal – external locus of control scale to measure perceptions of general life events and the scale developed specifically to measure attributional perceptions in foreign language learning based on Weiner's theoretical paradigm. The results showed that as learners perceived a greater level of internal locus of control in general life events, they experienced less anxiety. That is, the original hypothesis was supported in this case. However, in the foreign language learning situation, learners who perceived high levels of internal controllability experienced higher levels of foreign

language use anxiety. That is, the original hypothesis was not supported in the foreign language learning situation. In fact, the opposite relationship was found.

In detail, when the perceptions of controllability were measured in terms of the foreign language learning environment, the data revealed that learners who attributed their success internally (i.e., ability and effort) had higher levels of foreign language anxiety than those who attributed externally (i.e., task difficulty and luck). Especially, when effort was singled out as the only internally controllable factor, learners who made higher attributions to effort had higher levels of foreign language use anxiety in such language learning tasks as communicating in English and TOEFL. That is, when learners felt they had more control over the success of foreign language learning, they were more likely to have high levels of foreign language use anxiety. This tendency did not hold regarding grades in English courses.

One of the explanations might be related to the uniqueness of foreign language anxiety. Researchers have claimed that foreign language anxiety is unique compared to other anxieties in the sense that language learning situations seem to differ from other subject learning situations. The data appear to support the position that attributions learners have differ in foreign language learning situations from those in other general life events. Then why might this case occur in foreign language learning?

One reason might be related to the possible conflict between learning a foreign language in class and using it in real life. The goal of attaining a good grade could be somewhat easily achievable when learners put in enough effort to cover materials that they have learned in class thoroughly for the test. However, outside the class, learners might realize that being proficient in a language does not mean just having a good score. They have to be able to use the language holistically; they cannot simply use grammar, vocabulary, reading individually, but all aspects of the language must be applied simultaneously. This might challenge learners' perceptions that effort in class does not necessarily pay off in real life communication and thereby, elevates the levels of foreign language use anxiety.

In the event that learners attribute the cause of a failure to their effort, learners might experience such feelings as frustration or disappointment. In a similar future situation, when a failure occurs again, they might doubt their effort and get nervous that their effort is not sufficient to accomplish the task. Learners might come to believe that failure is their fault because their effort did not work. Therefore, they would heighten their tension and levels of anxiety. This pattern is not totally in opposition to the paradigm of attribution theory.

Indeed, caution has to be taken with assigning effort as the cause of success or failure of a task. Although effort should lead to positive outcomes in

the educational settings, a "double-edged sword" effect can occur in school achievement (Covington & Omelich, 1979). While students can experience accomplishment and pride in completing a task by expending effort, they can easily feel incapable if they have to expend extraordinary effort to be successful. Thereby, these learners would also experience distress (Covington & Omelich, 1979). This pattern might have happened to the participants in the present study. Further work needs to examine the effects of effort in the language learning context and its effect on foreign language anxiety.

5.1.3. Culture and Foreign Language Use Anxiety

For the effect of cultural constructs (i.e., individualism versus collectivism) on foreign language anxiety, the data showed that foreign language use anxiety was not related to individualism or collectivism. Interestingly, however, a relationship was found between countries and foreign language use anxiety. Learners from Asia had a higher level of foreign language use anxiety than those from other countries. Korean and Chinese learners, particularly, seemed to have the highest level of anxiety among Asians. Although the data did not support Triandis' paradigm on cultural constructs, it showed a clear pattern that culture did affect levels of foreign language anxiety.

One possible reason that the questionnaire constructed by Triandis did not capture the cultural sensitivity in these data is that the participants in this study might have had specific or marginal characteristics that may make them different from the majority of language learners. Participants in this study were assumed to be highly motivated and well educated individuals who might be considered to have a cosmopolitan orientation. As such, they might not be representative of the culture, as a whole.

A second reason that the Triandis' scale was not sensitive to the data may lie in the fact that it is general in nature. Some researchers (Fiske, 2002; Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002; Oyserman, Kemmelmeier, & Coon 2002) argue that contextual specificity in norms and values should be taken into account. This study supports the notion that foreign language anxiety is language specific and separable from general anxiety. Attributions also appear to be different in the foreign language context. Therefore, it makes sense that this contextual specificity needs to be included within the broader cultural context. As Triandis later pointed out, the more different cultures are from the United States, the less valid American made self-reported scales are (Fiske, 2002).

Finally, researchers (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002) argue that scales such as Triandis' may confuse individuals with their groups. Attitudes and preferences may not be able to tap the social obligations and roles of reference

groups. In short, the Triandis' scale in its current form may be "too psychological" to measure or capture the broader cultural constructs.

Despite the fact that Triandis' claim was not supported, some effects of culture were noted. Although Asian learners, particularly Chinese and Koreans, were the most anxious, this does not appear to be related to the collectivist – individualist dynamic. What, then, might account for it?

First, the issue of face saving exists in both cultures as an influence of Confucianism. In language learning situations, verbal expressions in public are a necessity to improve communicative language proficiency. However, where the ingroup cohesion is strong and "sticking out" behaviors by being talkative or expressive in class are not encouraged, learners may have to challenge these values. In the process of dealing with this issue of face-saving in those cultures, learners experience elevated levels of anxiety as shown in the present data.

Second, cultural differences in the attributional patterns may serve to increase the levels of anxiety. East Asian cultures generally emphasize effort more than innate ability in their educational attainment (Kim & Chun, 1994; Stevenson, Azuma, & Hakuta, 1986; Stevenson et al., 1990; Yu & Yang, 1994). In the comparison studies (Hess, Chang, & McDevitt, 1987; Stevenson et al., 1990; Watkins & Cheng, 1995) with Americans, Chinese believe that academic achievement is more strongly related to effort than innate ability. Bond (1991,

1996a) has even referred to this emphasis on effort in Chinese societies as the 'cult of effort.' According to Lebra's (1976) experiment, surprisingly, only 1% of the Japanese respondents in the study attribute success to ability while 70% of them attribute it to diligence, effort, and endurance. A similar tendency can be seen among Koreans (Griffith & Lim, 2003). As discussed earlier, effort tends to increase levels of anxiety in the present data. Consistently, such values as hard work and effort among these cultural groups may, in fact, play a role in heightening the levels of foreign language use anxiety.

Third, related to cultural beliefs, these cultural values may also affect the characteristics of motivation. Motivational studies with Chinese learners have shown that they have a strong tendency toward achievement motivation. However, achievement motivation is different from what Westerners would measure in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The latter types of motivation in western cultures are individually oriented whereas the former type of motivation is closely connected to groups that people belong to. Achievement motivation is related to filial piety among Chinese people (Yu, 1996; Yu & Yang, 1994). Their motivation is to fulfill the expectations of the ingroup (e.g., family). For example, parents often want their children to get into a particular educational institution or pursue a particular major for a future career. A lot of times children tend to do their best to fulfill their parents' expectations because filial piety is

considered very important in maintaining the harmony and group cohesion in societies based on Confucianism. The relationship between anxiety and achievement motivation rooted in unique cultural characteristics appears to be consistent with the result that the "importance" value reinforced by significant others (i.e., parents, peers) increases the levels of foreign language use anxiety.

Fourth, there might be an effect of some of misbeliefs that some Asians learners have. Many Chinese learners perceive perfect pronunciation to be the most important aspect in foreign language learning (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). Lim (2002) has expressed in her autobiographical study that she, as a foreign language learner of English in South Korea, always had a fear that her English might not be good enough because she did not learn it in the target culture despite her high achievement in English language courses. That is, she explains that she developed a belief that English could be learned best only in the target language culture when taught by native English speakers of English. In some extreme cases, some learners believe that they cannot learn foreign languages to the extent that others can. Japanese learners indeed believe that English language learning is an extremely difficult task (Hinenoya & Gatbonton, 2000). Some of those beliefs may unnecessarily evoke fear or frustration in language learning and eventually interrupt learning.

Overall, culture seems to play an important role in constructing perceptions, attribution, and values in foreign language learning. Some values (e.g., strong ingroup tendency, filial piety, extraordinary value on effort, achievement motivation) foster certain perceptions in learning and also affect levels of foreign language use anxiety. More in-depth research should follow for a fuller understanding of the effects of each value on foreign language anxiety and the achievement of foreign language proficiency.

5.2. LIMITATIONS

Some limitations should be considered when interpreting the results of the present study. The present study is an exploratory study aimed at a preliminary examination of the effects of task values, attribution, and culture on foreign language use anxiety.

The nature of the homogeneity of the sample should be mentioned. First, the participants of this study are likely to be highly motivated and high achievers. As such, all of them have already demonstrated a high level of English proficiency. Second, they are teaching assistants. This makes English very important to them because they will have to use English daily as a part of their work. These factors limit the potential range of such variables as “utility” and “importance” among others.

The present research findings have limited generalizability. The participants were not randomly selected. Although teachers or practitioners may find the research findings useful, they should use them only as a guide and take caution in applying the findings to their local situation.

The finding from the correlational statistics cannot imply any causal relationships because unidentified variables may influence the relationships between two variables. That is, for example, one of the findings of this study shows that foreign language use anxiety and internal controllability (i.e., effort) are correlated. However, one cannot predict that controllability causes elevated levels of foreign language use anxiety. Correlations are also limited in that they can only measure linear relationships between variables. Any non-linear or curvilinear relationships that those variables might have in the present study cannot be analyzed in the correlational statistics.

Nevertheless, the students came from 32 different countries and were attending one of the major research institutions in the United States. The sample size was 365 and the response rate was about 61%. As such, at least prima facie, there might not be no reason to believe that they are atypical of international graduate students in the United States. The question remains, however, as to whether ITA's can inform us about language learners in general.

5.3. IMPLICATIONS

5.3.1. Theoretical Implications

The present study provides evidence to support the argument that foreign language anxiety is related to perceptions about language learning. Three variables were examined to measure participants' perceptions: values of language learning, causal attributions of language learning, and the influence of culture.

Similar to previous studies on motivation, the present study shows that intrinsic values in language learning decrease foreign language anxiety. Thus, learners may have better opportunities to pay complete attention and energy to learning. Extrinsic values, on the other hand, generally increase anxiety. However, the present results also indicate that extrinsic values may play a more complex role in increasing anxiety. The "utility" factor in extrinsic values seems to take the role of decreasing anxiety in language learning while the "importance" factor increases foreign language anxiety. While further empirical studies need to be explored to build a firm theoretical framework, it is worth noting that the present results indicate that immediacy takes an important part in creating foreign language anxiety. That is, a threat of negative consequences does not seem to raise anxiety levels unless it is relatively proximate or immediate.

The use of attribution theory results in interesting theoretical implications in the studies of foreign language anxiety. The present results show that

attributions influence anxiety in a way that is not usually predicted in previous studies. If learners believe that foreign language learning can be controlled internally, levels of anxiety increase. On the other hand, if learners believe they can control life related events, anxiety decreases. This result implies that causal attributions may affect anxiety in a different way in language learning than in more general life situations. For instance, Lim (2003a) suggests, in a theoretical model, that self-efficacy plays a mediating role between attribution and anxiety. Learners may have a high sense of controllability in language learning but if their self-efficacy is low for some reason, they experience high levels of anxiety. Although more empirical studies are necessary to examine these complex interrelationships, it is worth exploring such possible mediating variables to get a clearer picture of relationships between attribution and foreign language anxiety in second/foreign language acquisition.

This study also contributes to the enrichment of research in foreign language anxiety by including culture as one of the major variables. It appears from the results that culture plays an important part in influencing foreign language anxiety. One of the reasons for heightened levels of anxiety among some Asian groups may result from the perceptual conflict that learners experience in the process of achieving communicative competency. To the extent that the native and target cultures are similar, these effects may be more marginal.

On the other hand, the more disparate the native and target cultures, the greater the degree of foreign language anxiety that may result due to perceived cultural conflicts including politeness rituals, interaction styles, and communication styles. The present results imply that foreign language anxiety should be explored with attention to learners' cultural backgrounds in order to understand language anxiety holistically as language learning is involved with acquisition of socio-cultural values and knowledge of the target culture.

5.3.2. Practical Implications

The results of the present study provide some practical implications for dealing with foreign language use anxiety. The role of task values, attributions, and culture suggests several insights for educators.

This study clearly shows that interest in learning a foreign language, particularly intrinsic interest, can reduce foreign language use anxiety. Teachers should, therefore, try to create innovative, practical, and fun activities that will generate and maintain interest. Teachers might also wish to devise strategies to make the activities themselves inherently interesting while deemphasizing the utility of language acquisition and use.

Effort clearly plays a role in foreign language anxiety. In this study, anxiety was higher among students who perceived effort as the primary causes of

their achievement (or lack thereof). While language teachers want to create a sense of individual responsibility for learning, they want to be cautious of the double-edged nature of such a strategy. Overemphasis on effort may result in a backlash creating a feeling of heightened anxiety because it may lead to increased internal attribution. As seen from the data, internal attributions can increase anxiety.

Cultural orientations of students must also be considered. As shown in the study, some learners tend to have higher levels of foreign language use anxiety than others because of the characteristics that they have likely developed in their own countries. For example, students from the countries where a face-saving phenomenon is pervasive are likely to hesitate to talk and express their opinions in class. U.S. teachers may assume that these behaviors show laziness or disinterest in class. However, students understand that their behaviors are a way to be polite and sensitive to the needs of the class. In some cases among Korean students, those who participate actively may believe fellow students will ostracize them (Lim, 2003b). This behavior will be a great challenge for those who highly value strong ingroup cohesion. Therefore, teachers should be fundamentally aware of the cultural underpinnings of the various groups in their multicultural language classes.

Finally, several implications exist for those who have acquired and must use a foreign language in the United States. In the case of the ITAs used in this study, it is worth noting that half were newcomers (50.7%) within a couple of months of having arrived. Therefore, the opportunity to use the language in authentic practice situations might help relieve some foreign language use anxiety. This further suggests that before students become involved in actual work or study situations where they must use a foreign language, opportunities to become familiar with the culture may be a key. That is, learning a variety of norms regarding, for example, small talk, turn-taking, and appropriate topics for conversation may also serve to reduce foreign language use anxiety. Foreign language use anxiety may be caused, in part, by factors marginally related to the acquisition of language, per se, but central to communicative proficiency.

Overall, learners tend to perceive and attribute events in a way which is most likely to make them become more confident and in control of their learning. Sensitivity to and understanding of students' cultural backgrounds will allow to identify potential attribution and behavioral situations that may be detrimental to learning and devise classroom strategies to counteract them before they have a change to influence learning.

5.4. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The data from this study show promise in helping to understand the role of attributions in motivation. The study should be replicated using other populations in an effort to increase the reliability and validity of the findings. Future studies need to include a greater diversity of participants. Language learners at varying levels of proficiency, various stages of learning and with various ages might need to be included to try to determine more precisely how the model used in this study works.

In addition, it is clear that culture is a variable which must also be explicitly included in studies related to foreign language use anxiety. As researchers (Yang, 1986; Yu & Yang, 1994; Yu, 1996) point out, much of the motivation paradigm has been developed and tested in western cultures. As Asia, for example, begins to emerge, researchers should try to look for ways to determine if current motivation models apply in these contexts. Further, attributions also need to be adjusted to a less western motif (cf. Watkins & Cheng, 1995). This suggests that further research in foreign language use anxiety needs to draw from the work of cross-cultural psychology to help achieve more insight into the process.

This study also suggests that it is time to move beyond the notion of motivation or anxiety as largely individual concepts. The role of attitudes, beliefs,

and values as socially constructed needs to be explored. That is, surely, it is the individual who perceives, evaluates, and attributes, but those tendencies are neither random nor completely individually formed. Understanding the cultural underpinnings may yield more informed results.

Using a previously untested model developed by Lim (2003a), it might be possible to explore the role of attributions in motivation. Care should be taken to address some of the measurement problems noted here, but linking attribution with expectancy-value theory directly in a motivational model related to foreign language anxiety could be a step toward integrating these research traditions.

Finally, the study suggests that attribution theory has something to offer the field of second/foreign language acquisition. Future studies need to try to make greater use of the theoretical models presented in this study. In combination with the empirical studies, this could result in a better and more complete understanding of foreign language anxiety.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. CONSENT FORM

Effects of Perceived Locus of Control and Cultural Constructs on Foreign Language Anxiety among International Teaching Assistants*

You are invited to participate in a study of foreign language anxiety among international teaching assistants. My name is Hye-Yeon Lim and I am a graduate student at the University of Texas at Austin. This study is for partial fulfillment of the requirements for my dissertation. I hope to learn how foreign language anxiety is related to perceived locus of control and cultural constructs. You are being asked to participate in the study because you are certified as an international teaching assistant or assistant instructor at the University of Texas at Austin. If you decide to participate, you will be one of approximately 300 people in the study.

If you decide to participate, I will ask you to fill out two questionnaires. They will be given on different days. The questionnaires are designed to see how you perceive English learning (Questionnaire 1) and what your subjective cultural constructs are (Questionnaire 2). Each questionnaire will take approximately 10-20 minutes. You do not have to answer every question if you don't want to. There are no known risks to participating in this study. Any information that you provide may be helpful in devising more effective language learning programs.

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission. During the survey, you will have the option to not answer questions that you feel uncomfortable with, and you can withdraw your participation at any time by expressing your wish to stop filling out the questionnaires or simply by not returning the questionnaires.

Your decision to participate or not will not affect your relationship with The University of Texas at Austin, the ITA teaching workshop, or any of your courses.

If you have any questions about the study, please ask me. If you have any questions later, contact me at 471-5211 or hyeyeon@mail.utexas.edu, or contact my supervisor, Professor Elaine K. Horwitz, at 471-4078 or horwitz@mail.utexas.edu.

You may keep this consent form. Returning the questionnaires indicates that you have read the information provided above and have decided to participate in the study. If at any time you decide that you do not want to participate in the study,

simply let me know. I may be reached by phone, e-mail, or in person. You may discontinue your participation in this study at any time.

_____ _____

Signature of Participant Date

* This title was tentative at the data collection stage. The conditions and uses of the data have not changed.

APPENDIX B. COVER LETTER FOR QUESTIONNAIRE 1

Welcome to the ITA workshop. My name is Hye-Yeon Lim and I am a Ph.D. candidate in Foreign Language Education. I am doing research for my dissertation and would like to ask your participation in my study. I'm studying how people's beliefs about learning and cultural beliefs affect foreign language use anxiety.

I understand that you all are busy preparing for the new semester. I really appreciate your time and help for the study. I'd like to thank you for your participation by offering you a chance to win $75 in a lottery. Those who complete Questionnaires 1 and 2 and put a "lottery" ticket in the yellow boxes are eligible for this award. The "lottery" ticket is on Questionnaire 2 which you will be asked to fill out tomorrow. The winner will receive an e-mail notifying him/her that he/she has won and will provide instructions on claiming the prize.

You can work on this anytime you have free time including now. Thank you.

Hye-Yeon Lim

P.S. You will find more detailed information in the consent form attached at the end. Please tear the consent form off and take it with you as your copy of your agreement to participate.

APPENDIX C. COVER LETTER FOR QUESTIONNAIRE 2

Good morning. Today, I'm giving you Questionnaire 2. I'd like to remind you that when you complete and return both Questionnaires 1 and 2, you are eligible to enter the drawing for $75. This questionnaire will probably take about 10 minutes.

Thanks for your participation and don't forget to put the "lottery" ticket in the yellow boxes.

Sincerely,

Hye-Yeon Lim

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APPENDIX D. QUESTIONNAIRE 1 (TASK VALUES)

Questionnaire 1

Last four digits of your Social Security Number__ __ __ __
If you don't have it yet, please provide your Student ID #__ __ __ __

This questionnaire examines your attitudes and opinions about learning English. There are no right or wrong answers. All answers will remain anonymous. Please place the last four digits of your social security number (or student ID number) in the space indicated. These numbers will be used only to match questionnaires 1 and 2. This questionnaire will probably take about 15-20 minutes. Your participation is greatly appreciated.

The following questions are designed to examine how you feel about learning English. Please indicate your opinion by **circling the number** of the degree that best indicates your choice.

Ex) How interested are you in movies?

Not Interested			**Moderately Interested**			**Very Interested**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

1. In general, I found studying English to be

Very Boring						Very Interesting
			Neutral			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Compared to my other school subjects, English was

Much more Interesting			About the same			Much more Boring
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. How important do you think English is for the occupational career you propose to follow?

Not important At all			Moderately Important			Very Important
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. How important do you think English is for doing your teaching assistant or assistant instructor's job?

Not important At all			Moderately Important			Very Important
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. I am learning English because others (i.e., parents, peers) say it is important to speak English well.

Absolutely not			Moderately			Absolutely
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. How useful is learning English for what you want to do after you graduate and go to work?

Not very Useful			Moderately Useful			Very Useful
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. After I graduate and get a job in my country, I don't anticipate having to use English for work.

Strongly Agree			Neutral			Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX E. QUESTIONNAIRE 1
(ENGLISH LANGUAGE USE ANXIETY)

You have answered a number of questions about how you feel about learning English. The following statements apply to how you feel about English use in daily life. Indicate how well these statements apply to you by **circling the number** that best describes your opinion.

Ex) I like Austin.

Strongly Disagree		**Disagree**		**Neutral**		**Agree**		**Strongly Agree**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**		**5**	**6**		**7**

1. I would feel comfortable speaking English in an informal gathering where native English speakers and people from my country were present.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4		5	6		7

2. I would feel uncomfortable speaking English under any circumstances.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4		5	6		7

3. I would feel confident and relaxed if I had to ask street directions in English.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4		5	6		7

4. I am sure that I would get nervous if I had to speak English to a sales clerk.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral	Agree		Strongly Agree
1	2		3	4	5	6	7

5. When making a telephone call, I would get flustered if it were necessary to speak English.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral	Agree		Strongly Agree
1	2		3	4	5	6	7

6. I would feel calm and sure of myself if I had to order a meal in English in a U.S. restaurant.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral	Agree		Strongly Agree
1	2		3	4	5	6	7

7. If I should ever meet an English speaking person, I would feel relaxed talking with him.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral	Agree		Strongly Agree
1	2		3	4	5	6	7

8. Speaking English with my supervisor would bother me.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral	Agree		Strongly Agree
1	2		3	4	5	6	7

9. I am concerned about having to speak English with undergraduate students in my class.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree
1	2		3	4		5	6	7

10. I feel confident that I will have no trouble explaining things in English to undergraduate students in class.

Strongly Disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly Agree
1	2		3	4		5	6	7

APPENDIX F. QUESTIONNAIRE 1 (LOCUS OF CONTROL)

The following items are to find out the way in which certain important events in our society affect different people. Each item consists of a pair of alternatives lettered (a) or (b). Please select the one statement of each pair (***and only one***) by **circling the letter** of the statement which you more strongly ***believe*** to be the case as far as you're concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually ***believe*** to be more true rather than the one you think you should chose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief: obviously **there are no right or wrong answers.**

Ex) (a) I like apples.

(b) I like bananas.

1. (a) Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
   (b) People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

2. (a) In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
   (b) Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.

3. (a) The ideas that teachers are unfair to students are nonsense.
   (b) Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.

4. (a) Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
   (b) Capable people who fail to become learners have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

5. (a) I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
   (b) Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

6. (a) In the case of the well-prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
   (b) Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.

7. (a) Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
   (b) Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.

8. (a) When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
   (b) It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

9. (a) Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
   (b) Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or noting to do with it.

10. (a) Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
    (b) There really is no such thing as "luck."

11. (a) It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
    (b) How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.

12. (a) Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
    (b) There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.

13. (a) Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
    (b) It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

14. (a) People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
    (b) There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.

15. (a) What happens to me is my own doing.
    (b) Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

APPENDIX G. QUESTIONNAIRE 1 (ATTRIBUTION)

16. For each of the items below, please indicate the percentage you believe that it contributes to **your success of communicating in English**? Please make sure they total 100%.

The similarity of English to your native language	_____%
How much you try to talk with native speakers	_____%
Your natural aptitude for languages	_____%
The number of hours a day you study	_____%
How good your English teachers are	_____%
Number of opportunities for you to encounter native speakers of English	_____%
Doing extra homework	_____%
Clarity of pronunciation of the person you are talking to	_____%
Other. Please specify_____	_____%
	100 %

17. For each of the items below, please indicate the percentage you believe that it contributes to **your TOEFL scores**? Please make sure they total 100%.

Which version of test you get	_____%
Test conditions (i.e., good computers/speakers/ physical conditions)	_____%
Your natural aptitude for languages	_____%
Taking a TOEFL class	_____%
Your natural aptitude for taking tests	_____%

The number of hours you studied _____%

Other. Please specify _____ _____%

100 %

18. For each of the items below, please indicate the percentage you believe that it contributes to **making a good grade in your English classes**? Please make sure they total 100%.

The number of hours a day you study _____%

Performance standards necessary to pass a class _____%

Your natural aptitude for languages _____%

Doing extra homework _____%

How good your teachers are _____%

Teachers' grading standards _____%

Other. Please specify _____ _____%

100 %

APPENDIX H. QUESTIONNAIRE 1 (DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS)

Finally, I would like to ask some questions about yourself, to help interpret the results. Please answer the following questions or check the proper answers.

1. What year were you born in? 19__ __
2. Sex Male_____ Female_____
3. Major
   Humanities____ Social Sciences____
   Natural/Physical Sciences____ Engineering___
   Fine Arts ____ Education____
   Other_____
4. What country are you from? _____
5. What is your native language? _____
6. Which of the following appointments best describes you for the fall semester?
   Teaching Assistant____ Research Assistant____
   Assistant Instructor____ None____

These next questions are designed to tell us about your English language background.

7. What is your most current TOEFL score? _____
   7a. What year did you take it? 19__ __
8. What is your score for the International TA/AI English oral proficiency assessment (i.e., the one you got from Dexter Hall)?
   Passed (250-300)____ Conditionally passed (230-249)____
   Did not pass (229 or below)____
9. How often do you use English in a day?

Never	Rarely	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	Always
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

   9a. Who do you use English with? _____
10. How much time totally have you spent in the United States (or other English speaking countries)? _____

11. Have you ever studied in a formal school environment in the United States (e.g., high school, college, graduate school)?
    Yes____ No____
    11a. If yes, how long? _____
12. How long have you been studying English? _____
13. In general, how do you rate your ability to speak English?

Very Low			Average			Very High
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. In general, what was your grade in English at school?
    Bottom 10%____ Well below average____ Below average____
    Average____ Above average____ Well above average____
    Top 10%____

Now, please put your completed questionnaire in the designated yellow boxes or turn it in to me. Thanks for your participation☺

APPENDIX I. QUESTIONNAIRE 2 (CULTURAL CONSTRUCTS)

Questionnaire 2

Last four digits of your Social Security Number__ __ __ __
If you don't have it yet, please provide your Student ID #__ __ __ __

Yesterday, you received a questionnaire about how you feel about learning English. Here is a second questionnaire designed to examine what you would do in a certain situation. All answers will remain anonymous. Please place the last four digits of your social security number (or student ID number) in the space indicated. These numbers will be used only to match questionnaires 1 and 2. It will probably take about 10 minutes. Your participation is greatly appreciated.

Below are several scenarios. Each scenario is followed by four options. Please imagine yourself in those situations and rank the options, by placing a **1** next to the option you consider the best, or the most "right" or "appropriate for you" and a **2** next to the next best option. Do not bother to rank the other two options. Remember **there are no "correct" answers**, just your opinion of what is best. This questionnaire is confidential. REMEMBER: Please choose **TWO** options.

Ex) If I won million dollars, I would
a. buy a car ( )
b. travel all around the world (1)
c. build a school (2)
d. go to the moon ( )

1. You and your friends decided spontaneously to go out to dinner at a restaurant. What do you think is the best way to handle the bill?
   a. Split it equally, without regard to who ordered what ( )
   b. Split it according to how much each person makes ( )
   c. The group leader pays the bill or decides how to split it ( )
   d. Compute each person's charge according to what that person ordered ( )

2. You are buying a piece of art for your office. Which one factor is most important in deciding whether to buy it?
    a. It is a good investment ( )
    b. Your coworkers will like it ( )
    c. You just like it ( )
    d. Your supervisor will approve of it ( )

3. Suppose you had to use one word to describe yourself. Which one would you use?
    a. unique ( )
    b. competitive ( )
    c. cooperative ( )
    d. dutiful ( )

4. Happiness is attained by
    a. gaining a lot of status in the community ( )
    b. linking with a lot of friendly people ( )
    c. keeping one's privacy ( )
    d. winning in competitions ( )

5. You are planning to take a major trip that is likely to inconvenience a lot of people at your place of work, during your absence. With whom will you discuss it, before deciding whether or not to take it?
        a. No one ( )
        b. My parents ( )
        c. My spouse or close friend ( )
        d. Experts about the place I plan to travel to so I can decide if I want to go( )

6. Which one of these four books appears to you to be the most interesting?
    a. How to make friends ( )
    b. How to succeed in business ( )
    c. How to enjoy yourself inexpensively ( )
    d. How to make sure you are meeting your obligations ( )

7. Which is the most important factor in an employee's promotion, assuming that all other factors such as tenure and performance are equal? Employee is or has
    a. loyal to the corporation ( )
    b. obedient to the instructions from management ( )
    c. able to think for him/herself ( )
    d. contributed to the corporation much in the past ( )

8. When you buy clothing for a major social event, you would be most satisfied if
    a. you like it ( )
    b. your parents like it ( )
    c. your friends like it ( )
    d. it is so elegant that it will dazzle everyone ( )

9. In your opinion, in an ideal society national budgets will be determined so that
    a. all people have adequate incomes to meet basic needs ( )
    b. some people will be rewarded for making brilliant contributions ( )
    c. there will be maximal stability, law, and order ( )
    d. people can feel unique and self-actualized ( )

10. When people ask me about myself, I
    a. talk about my ancestors and their traditions ( )
    b. talk about my friends, and what we like to do ( )
    c. talk about my accomplishments ( )
    d. talk about what makes me unique ( )

11. Suppose your fiancé(e) and your parents do not get along very well. What would you do?
    a. Nothing ( )
    b. Tell my fiancé(e) that I need my parents' financial support and he or she should learn to handle the politics ( )
    c. Tell my fiancé(e) that he or she should make a greater effort to "fit in with the family" ( )
    d. Remind my fiancé(e) that my parents and family are very important to me and he or she should submit to their wishes ( )

12. Teams of five people entered a science project contest. Your team won first place and a prize of $100. You and another person did 95% of the work on this project. How should the money be distributed?
    a. Split it equally, without regard to who did what ( )
    b. The other person and I get 95% of the money and the rest goes to the group ( )
    c. The group leader decides how to split the money ( )
    d. Divide the money the way that gives me the most satisfaction ( )

13. Imagine you are selecting a band for a fund-raising event given by your organization. Which are the most important factors in making your decision?
    a. I really like the band ( )
    b. My friends approve of this band ( )
    c. The administration of my organization approves of the band ( )
    d. The band will draw a large crowd ( )

14. You need to choose one more class for next semester. Which one will you select?
    a. The one that will help me get ahead of everyone else ( )
    b. The one my parents said to take ( )
    c. The one my friends plan to take ( )
    d. The one that seems most interesting to me ( )

15. You are at a pizza restaurant with a group of friends. How should you decide what kind of pizza to order?
    a. The leader of the group orders for everyone ( )
    b. I order what I like ( )
    c. We select the pizza that most people prefer ( )
    d. We order the most extravagant pizza available ( )

16. Which candidate will you vote for in the election for president of the student government?
    a. The one your friends are voting for ( )
    b. The one I like best ( )
    c. The one who will reward me personally ( )
    d. The one who is a member of an organization important to me. The status of the organization will improve if that candidate is elected. ( )

APPENDIX J. QUESTIONNAIRE 2 (DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS)

I'd like to ask some questions about yourself, to help interpret the results. Please answer the following questions or check the proper answers.

15. What year were you born in? 19__ __
16. Sex Male_____ Female_____
17. Major
    Humanities____ Social Sciences____
    Natural/Physical Sciences____ Engineering___
    Fine Arts ____ Education____
    Other_____
18. What country are you from? _____
19. What is your native language? _____

Now, please put your completed questionnaire in the designated yellow boxes or turn it in to me. Thanks for your participation☺

Last Chance To Win $75

Complete and return both Questionnaires 1 and 2 for your chance to win. See Questionnaires for details.

Any questions?

Ask Hye-Yeon Lim

[hay-yon]

Last Chance To Win $75

APPENDIX L. RESULTS OF THE DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What year were you born in?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1963	1	.4	.4	.4
	1964	1	.4	.4	.9
	1965	1	.4	.4	1.3
	1966	3	1.3	1.3	2.7
	1967	2	.9	.9	3.6
	1968	6	2.7	2.7	6.3
	1969	7	3.1	3.1	9.4
	1970	4	1.8	1.8	11.2
	1971	12	5.4	5.4	16.6
	1972	8	3.6	3.6	20.2
	1973	18	8.0	8.1	28.3
	1974	5	2.2	2.2	30.5
	1975	15	6.7	6.7	37.2
	1976	24	10.7	10.8	48.0
	1977	22	9.8	9.9	57.8
	1978	33	14.7	14.8	72.6
	1979	41	18.3	18.4	91.0
	1980	19	8.5	8.5	99.6
	1981	1	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	223	99.6	100.0	
Missing	9999	1	.4		
Total		224	100.0		

2. Sex

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	154	68.8	68.8	68.8
	Female	70	31.3	31.3	100.0
	Total	224	100.0	100.0	

3. Major

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Humanities	9	4.0	4.0	4.0
	Social Sciences	24	10.7	10.8	14.8
	Natural/Physical Sciences	57	25.4	25.6	40.4
	Engineering	106	47.3	47.5	87.9
	Fine Arts	2	.9	.9	88.8
	Education	6	2.7	2.7	91.5
	Others	19	8.5	8.5	100.0
	Total	223	99.6	100.0	
Missing	8	1	.4		
Total		224	100.0		

4. What country are you from?

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Canada	1	.4	.4	.4
Turkey	6	2.7	2.7	3.1
Greece	4	1.8	1.8	4.9
China	19	8.5	8.5	13.4
Cyprus	2	.9	.9	14.3
Mexico	12	5.4	5.4	19.6
Nigeria	1	.4	.4	20.1
Nepal	2	.9	.9	21.0
Korea	31	13.8	13.8	34.8
India	99	44.2	44.2	79.0
Bangladesh	2	.9	.9	79.9
Taiwan	9	4.0	4.0	83.9
Hong Kong	2	.9	.9	84.8
Indonesia	1	.4	.4	85.3
France	3	1.3	1.3	86.6
Germany	4	1.8	1.8	88.4
Ukraine	2	.9	.9	89.3
Bulgaria	1	.4	.4	89.7
Russia	5	2.2	2.2	92.0
Colombia	4	1.8	1.8	93.7
Singapore	2	.9	.9	94.6
Thailand	1	.4	.4	95.1
Irish	1	.4	.4	95.5
Sweden	1	.4	.4	96.0
Venezuela	2	.9	.9	96.9
Argentina	1	.4	.4	97.3
Japan	1	.4	.4	97.8
Pakistan	1	.4	.4	98.2
Yugoslavia	1	.4	.4	98.7
Poland	1	.4	.4	99.1
Italy	1	.4	.4	99.6
Iran	1	.4	.4	100.0
Total	224	100.0	100.0	

5. What is your native language?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	French	4	1.8	1.8	1.8
	Turkish	7	3.1	3.1	4.9
	Greek	5	2.2	2.2	7.1
	Chinese	28	12.5	12.5	19.6
	Spanish	19	8.5	8.5	28.1
	Urhobo	1	.4	.4	28.6
	Nepali	1	.4	.4	29.0
	Korean	31	13.8	13.8	42.9
	Malayalam	3	1.3	1.3	44.2
	Bengali	8	3.6	3.6	47.8
	Tamil	30	13.4	13.4	61.2
	Punjabi	3	1.3	1.3	62.5
	Mandarin	3	1.3	1.3	63.8
	Hindi	23	10.3	10.3	74.1
	Indonesian	1	.4	.4	74.6
	Telugu	10	4.5	4.5	79.0
	Marathi	11	4.9	4.9	83.9
	German	4	1.8	1.8	85.7
	Kannada	5	2.2	2.2	87.9
	Bulgarian	1	.4	.4	88.4
	Russian	6	2.7	2.7	91.1
	Gujrati	4	1.8	1.8	92.9
	Thai	1	.4	.4	93.3
	English/Irish	1	.4	.4	93.8
	Swedish	1	.4	.4	94.2
	Konkani	1	.4	.4	94.6
	Kashmiri	1	.4	.4	95.1
	Tulu	1	.4	.4	95.5
	English/Indian	3	1.3	1.3	96.9
	Japanese	1	.4	.4	97.3
	Serbian	1	.4	.4	97.8
	Polish	1	.4	.4	98.2
	Italian	1	.4	.4	98.7
	Nepali	1	.4	.4	99.1
	Urdu	1	.4	.4	99.6
	Persian (Farsi)	1	.4	.4	100.0
	Total	224	100.0	100.0	

6. Which of the following appointment best describe you for the fall semester?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	T.A.	152	67.9	69.7	69.7
	R.A.	17	7.6	7.8	77.5
	A.I.	3	1.3	1.4	78.9
	None	46	20.5	21.1	100.0
	Total	218	97.3	100.0	
Missing	9	6	2.7		
Total		224	100.0		

APPENDIX M. RESULTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

7. What is your most current TOEFL score?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	547	2	.9	1.0	1.0
	550	1	.4	.5	1.5
	553	1	.4	.5	2.0
	557	1	.4	.5	2.5
	560	1	.4	.5	2.9
	563	1	.4	.5	3.4
	567	1	.4	.5	3.9
	570	3	1.3	1.5	5.4
	573	1	.4	.5	5.9
	577	1	.4	.5	6.4
	578	1	.4	.5	6.9
	580	4	1.8	2.0	8.8
	587	2	.9	1.0	9.8
	590	4	1.8	2.0	11.8
	593	4	1.8	2.0	13.7
	594	1	.4	.5	14.2
	597	2	.9	1.0	15.2
	600	8	3.6	3.9	19.1
	603	2	.9	1.0	20.1
	607	3	1.3	1.5	21.6
	610	9	4.0	4.4	26.0
	613	7	3.1	3.4	29.4
	617	7	3.1	3.4	32.8
	620	4	1.8	2.0	34.8
	623	6	2.7	2.9	37.7
	625	1	.4	.5	38.2
	627	2	.9	1.0	39.2
	630	17	7.6	8.3	47.5
	633	5	2.2	2.5	50.0
	637	8	3.6	3.9	53.9
	640	10	4.5	4.9	58.8
	643	6	2.7	2.9	61.8
	647	9	4.0	4.4	66.2
	650	12	5.4	5.9	72.1
	653	4	1.8	2.0	74.0

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	657	12	5.4	5.9	79.9
	660	11	4.9	5.4	85.3
	663	2	.9	1.0	86.3
	664	2	.9	1.0	87.3
	667	7	3.1	3.4	90.7
	670	7	3.1	3.4	94.1
	673	5	2.2	2.5	96.6
	677	7	3.1	3.4	100.0
	Total	204	91.1	100.0	
Missing	888	2	.9		
	999	18	8.0		
	Total	20	8.9		
Total		224	100.0		

7a. What year did you take it?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1994	2	.9	1.0	1.0
	1996	3	1.3	1.5	2.4
	1997	7	3.1	3.4	5.8
	1998	8	3.6	3.9	9.7
	1999	38	17.0	18.4	28.2
	2000	138	61.6	67.0	95.1
	2001	10	4.5	4.9	100.0
	Total	206	92.0	100.0	
Missing	8888	1	.4		
	9999	17	7.6		
	Total	18	8.0		
Total		224	100.0		

8. What is your score for the International TA/AI English oral proficiency assessment (i.e., the one you got from Dexter Hall)?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Passed	155	69.2	80.3	80.3
	Conditionally Passed	32	14.3	16.6	96.9
	Failed	1	.4	.5	97.4
	Exempt	5	2.2	2.6	100.0
	Total	193	86.2	100.0	
Missing	8	10	4.5		
	9	21	9.4		
	Total	31	13.8		
Total		224	100.0		

9. How often do you use English in a day?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	1	.4	.5	.5
	2	4	1.8	1.8	2.3
	3	10	4.5	4.6	6.8
	4	32	14.3	14.6	21.5
	5	45	20.1	20.5	42.0
	6	82	36.6	37.4	79.5
	7	45	20.1	20.5	100.0
	Total	219	97.8	100.0	
Missing	9	5	2.2		
Total		224	100.0		

9a. Who do you use English with?
(with family)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	146	65.2	72.6	72.6
	Yes	55	24.6	27.4	100.0
	Total	201	89.7	100.0	
Missing	8	3	1.3		
	9	20	8.9		
	Total	23	10.3		
Total		224	100.0		

(with friends)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	61	27.2	30.5	30.5
	Yes	139	62.1	69.5	100.0
	Total	200	89.3	100.0	
Missing	8	3	1.3		
	9	21	9.4		
	Total	24	10.7		
Total		224	100.0		

(with faculty)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	79	35.3	39.5	39.5
	Yes	121	54.0	60.5	100.0
	Total	200	89.3	100.0	
Missing	8	3	1.3		
	9	21	9.4		
	Total	24	10.7		
Total		224	100.0		

(with colleagues)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	83	37.1	41.5	41.5
	Yes	117	52.2	58.5	100.0
	Total	200	89.3	100.0	
Missing	8	3	1.3		
	9	21	9.4		
	Total	24	10.7		
Total		224	100.0		

(with native speakers)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	114	50.9	57.0	57.0
	Yes	86	38.4	43.0	100.0
	Total	200	89.3	100.0	
Missing	8	3	1.3		
	9	21	9.4		
	Total	24	10.7		
Total		224	100.0		

10. How much time totally have you spent in the United States (or other English speaking countries)?

	Months	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	96	42.9	45.9	45.9
	2	10	4.5	4.8	50.7
	3	3	1.3	1.4	52.2
	4	2	.9	1.0	53.1
	5	2	.9	1.0	54.1
	6	2	.9	1.0	55.0
	7	3	1.3	1.4	56.5
	8	4	1.8	1.9	58.4
	9	1	.4	.5	58.9
	11	1	.4	.5	59.3
	12	19	8.5	9.1	68.4
	13	4	1.8	1.9	70.3
	14	2	.9	1.0	71.3
	15	1	.4	.5	71.8
	16	1	.4	.5	72.2
	18	4	1.8	1.9	74.2
	19	1	.4	.5	74.6
	24	13	5.8	6.2	80.9
	25	1	.4	.5	81.3
	26	1	.4	.5	81.8
	30	2	.9	1.0	82.8
	36	9	4.0	4.3	87.1
	37	2	.9	1.0	88.0
	48	4	1.8	1.9	90.0
	51	2	.9	1.0	90.9
	56	1	.4	.5	91.4
	60	3	1.3	1.4	92.8
	68	1	.4	.5	93.3
	72	3	1.3	1.4	94.7
	84	1	.4	.5	95.2
	85	1	.4	.5	95.7
	108	1	.4	.5	96.2
	120	1	.4	.5	96.7
	156	1	.4	.5	97.1
	168	1	.4	.5	97.6
	252	2	.9	1.0	98.6
	264	1	.4	.5	99.0

	Months	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	267	1	.4	.5	99.5
	358	1	.4	.5	100.0
	Total	209	93.3	100.0	
Missing	888	7	3.1		
	999	8	3.6		
	Total	15	6.7		
Total		224	100.0		

11. Have you ever studied in a formal school environment in the United States (e.g., high school, college, graduate school)?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	160	71.4	73.4	73.4
	1	58	25.9	26.6	100.0
	Total	218	97.3	100.0	
Missing	9	6	2.7		
Total		224	100.0		

11a. If yes, how long?

	Months	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0	160	71.4	73.7	73.7
	3	1	.4	.5	74.2
	6	2	.9	.9	75.1
	7	2	.9	.9	76.0
	9	2	.9	.9	77.0
	12	14	6.3	6.5	83.4
	13	2	.9	.9	84.3
	18	3	1.3	1.4	85.7
	19	1	.4	.5	86.2
	20	1	.4	.5	86.6
	24	11	4.9	5.1	91.7
	36	6	2.7	2.8	94.5
	37	1	.4	.5	94.9
	48	5	2.2	2.3	97.2
	56	1	.4	.5	97.7
	60	2	.9	.9	98.6
	84	1	.4	.5	99.1
	120	1	.4	.5	99.5
	156	1	.4	.5	100.0
	Total	217	96.9	100.0	
Missing	999	7	3.1		
Total		224	100.0		

12. How long have you been studying English?

	Months	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	1	.4	.5	.5
	24	2	.9	1.0	1.4
	26	1	.4	.5	1.9
	36	4	1.8	1.9	3.8
	48	1	.4	.5	4.3
	60	7	3.1	3.4	7.7
	72	4	1.8	1.9	9.6
	84	6	2.7	2.9	12.5
	96	7	3.1	3.4	15.9
	108	5	2.2	2.4	18.3
	120	23	10.3	11.1	29.3
	132	6	2.7	2.9	32.2
	138	1	.4	.5	32.7

	Months	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	144	12	5.4	5.8	38.5
	156	5	2.2	2.4	40.9
	157	1	.4	.5	41.3
	168	8	3.6	3.8	45.2
	180	16	7.1	7.7	52.9
	192	20	8.9	9.6	62.5
	196	1	.4	.5	63.0
	202	2	.9	1.0	63.9
	204	12	5.4	5.8	69.7
	207	2	.9	1.0	70.7
	216	17	7.6	8.2	78.8
	217	1	.4	.5	79.3
	228	3	1.3	1.4	80.8
	240	17	7.6	8.2	88.9
	252	4	1.8	1.9	90.9
	264	6	2.7	2.9	93.8
	276	3	1.3	1.4	95.2
	288	3	1.3	1.4	96.6
	300	3	1.3	1.4	98.1
	324	3	1.3	1.4	99.5
	360	1	.4	.5	100.0
	Total	208	92.9	100.0	
Missing	888	5	2.2		
	999	11	4.9		
	Total	16	7.1		
Total		224	100.0		

13. In general, how do you rate your ability to speak English?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	2	3	1.3	1.4	1.4
	3	12	5.4	5.5	6.9
	4	29	12.9	13.3	20.2
	5	60	26.8	27.5	47.7
	6	72	32.1	33.0	80.7
	7	42	18.8	19.3	100.0
	Total	218	97.3	100.0	
Missing	9	6	2.7		
Total		224	100.0		

14. In general, what was your grade in English at school?

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1	3	1.3	1.4	1.4
	2	2	.9	.9	2.3
	3	2	.9	.9	3.2
	4	12	5.4	5.5	8.7
	5	18	8.0	8.3	17.0
	6	52	23.2	23.9	40.8
	7	129	57.6	59.2	100.0
	Total	218	97.3	100.0	
Missing	9	6	2.7		
Total		224	100.0		

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